



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

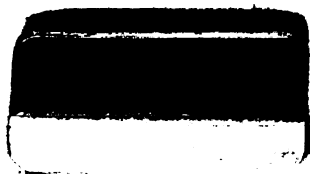
UC-NRLF

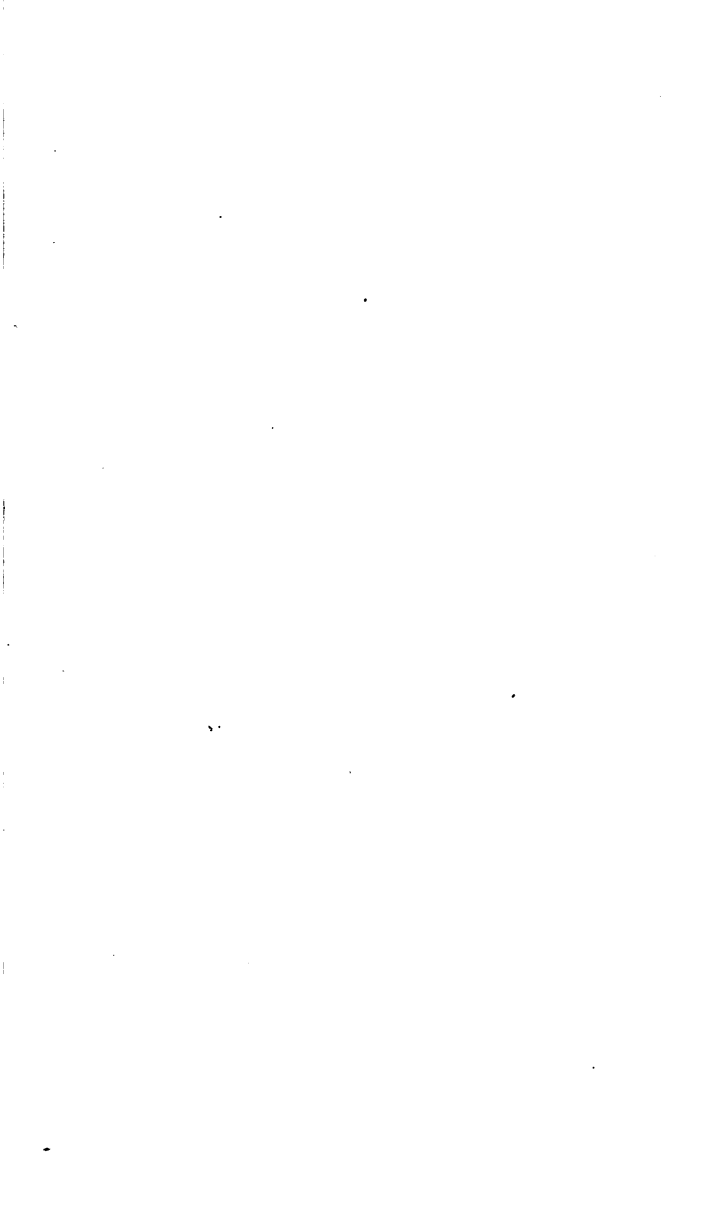


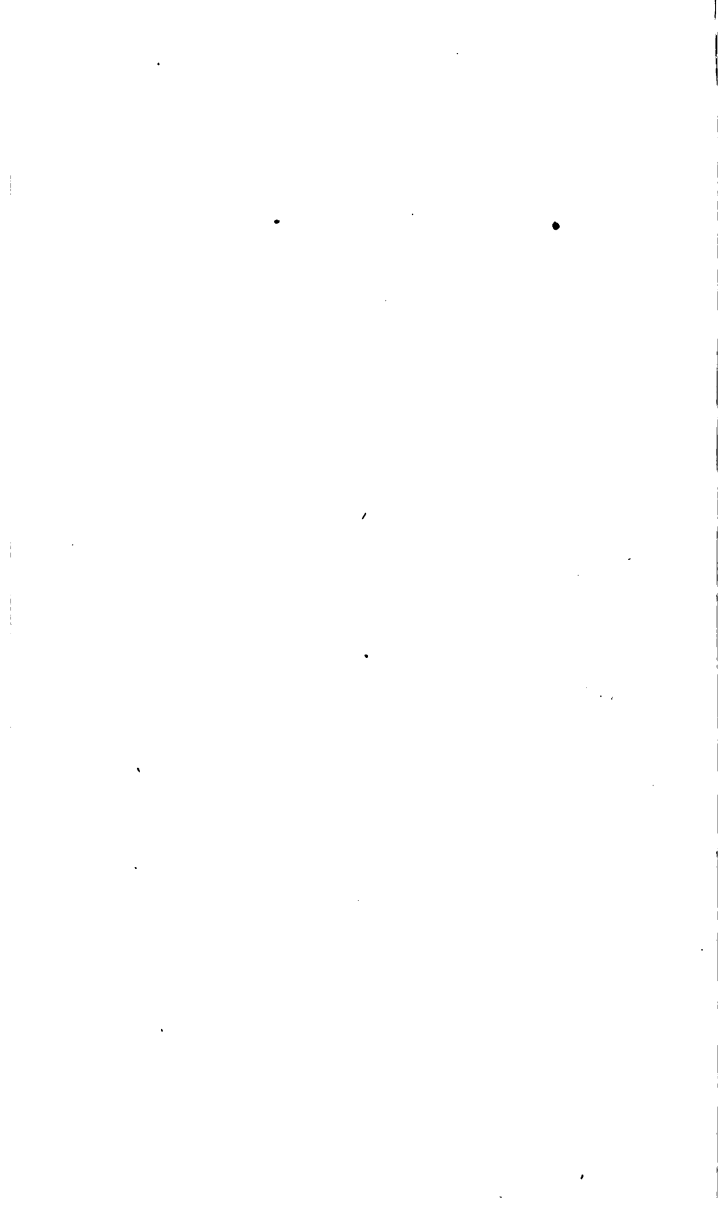
\$B 257 852



892
L352










[illegible]


LANGUAGES OF THE BRITISH ISLES

Explanation of the Colours

 Languages allied to the Ancient British

 French

 Languages allied to the German

 English mixed with Welsh, Manx and Gaelic.



Ferroe I^s

Shetland Isles

Orkney I^s

Hebrides

L. of Man

IRELAND

NORMANDY

FRANCE

HOLLAND

NORWAY

DENMARK

GERMANY

R. Eider

R. Elbe

R. Rhine

R. Danube

R. Vistula

R. Oder

HISTORY AND ETYMOLOGY
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE,
FOR THE USE OF
CLASSICAL SCHOOLS.

BY
R. G. LATHAM, M.D.

L O N D O N :
TAYLOR, WALTON, AND MABERLY,
UPPER GOWER STREET ; AND IVY LANE, PATERNOSTER ROW.

1849.

892
L352

70 VINI
ALPHABET

LONDON:

Printed by S. & J. BENTLEY and HENRY FLEY,
Bangor House, Shoe Lane.

PREFACE.

THE following pages are limited to the exhibition and explanation of the chief fundamental facts and principles in English Grammar, and in the History of the English Language ; being, to a certain extent, preparatory to the larger works of the Author upon the same subjects.

The way in which the writer suggests that his book should be studied is as follows :—

a. Each section (marked §), when it consists of a single paragraph, should be learned by heart.

b. When a section consists of more paragraphs than one, the first only should be learned by heart. The remainder should be *read* by the pupil, and (if necessary) verbally explained, and enlarged upon by the teacher.

All lists of words, quotations, and words from foreign languages, should be *written* out.

Such are the general principles of the method recommended. Particular cases where they must slightly be departed from will occur. These are matters for the discretion of the teacher.

The portions that will require the most explanation from the teacher, are Part II. (on the Nature of *Sounds*, &c.), and the explanation of the logical terms, Proposition, Subject, and Copula.

HISTORY

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

PART I.

§ 1. *Distribution of the English Language over the British Isles.*—With the exception of a few places on the frontier of Wales, the English Language is spoken exclusively throughout all the counties of England.

§ 2. It is spoken in Wales, *partially*; that is, in the Principality of Wales there are two languages, viz. the English, and the Welsh as well.

§ 3. It is also spoken in Scotland, *partially*; that is, in the Northern and Western counties of Scotland, there are two languages, the English, and a language called the *Scotch* Gaelic as well.

§ 4. It is also spoken in Ireland, *partially*; that is, in several of the counties of Ireland, there are two languages, the English, and a language called the *Irish* Gaelic as well.

§ 5. It is also spoken in the Isle of Man, *partially*; that is, in the Isle of Man there are two languages, the English, and a language called the Manx as well.

§ 6. Finally, it is spoken in the United States of America, in Canada, in Australia, and, more or less, in all the English colonies and dependencies.

Extension of the English Language over different and distant Countries.—The extension of the English language *beyond* the British Isles is a recent event when compared with its extension *over* the British Isles in the early periods of our history. Indeed, the former has taken place almost entirely since the reign of Queen Elizabeth. It was then that the first English colony, that of Virginia, was planted in North America; and it was only natural that the emigrants who left England should take their language with them. Upon the shores of America it came in contact and collision with the numerous dialects of the native Indians; and upon these it encroached just as, a thousand years before, it had encroached upon the original British of Britain. Numerous languages then became entirely lost, and, at the same time, the tribes who spoke them. Sometimes they were wholly exterminated; sometimes they were driven far into the interior of the land. In a short time populous cities stood upon the hunting-grounds of the expelled tribes, and the language of the mother-country became naturalized in a New World. The subsequent settlement of Maryland, Georgia, and the remaining States of America completed the preponderance of the English language from the boundaries of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico.

During the Protectorate of Cromwell, the island of

Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards, and from that time forwards the English has been the language of a greater part of the West Indian Islands. Here, also, it gradually displaced the dialects of the native Indians.

In Canada, it first took root after the taking of Quebec by General Wolf, in the reign of George the Second. As Canada, however, had been previously a French colony, the European language that was first spoken there was not the English but the French. Hence, when Quebec was taken, the language of the country fell into two divisions. There were the different dialects of the original Indians, and there was the French of the first European colonists. At the present moment, both these languages maintain their ground ; so that the English is spoken only partially in Canada, the French and the Indian existing by the side of it.

At the Cape of Good Hope the English is spoken in a similar manner ; that is, it is spoken partially. The original inhabitants were the Caffre and Hottentot tribes of Africa, and the earliest European colonists were the Dutch. For these reasons Dutch and English, conjointly with the Hottentot and Caffrarian dialects, form the language of the Cape of Good Hope. In Guiana, too, in South America, English and Dutch are spoken in the neighbourhood of each other, for the same reason as at the Cape.

In Asia the English language is spoken in India ; but there the original languages of the country are

2 1 3 3 3 3 3

224

which the English language was introduced into England, is generally believed to be the north-eastern part of the county of Kent.

By attending to the different portions of the coast upon which the different descents of the different German invaders took place, we can discover what portions of our islands lost their original language first; and by attending to the different dates of such invasions, we can ascertain the rate at which the old native British gave way to the new language introduced from Germany.

§ 13. *First settlement of invaders from Germany.*
—In the year 449 A.D. the invaders from Northern Germany made the first permanent settlement in Britain. Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet, was the spot where they landed; and the particular name that these tribes gave themselves was that of *Jutes*. Their leaders were Hengist and Horsa. Six years after their landing they had established the Kingdom of Kent; so that the county of Kent was the first district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Germany.

§ 14. *Second settlement of invaders from Germany.*
—In the year 477 A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the second permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Sussex was the spot whereon they landed. The particular name that these tribes gave themselves was that of *Saxons*. Their leader was Ella. They established the kingdom of the South Saxons

(Sussex); so that the county of Sussex was the second district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 15. *Third settlement of invaders from Germany.*

—In the year 495 A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the third permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Hampshire was the spot whereon they landed. Like the invaders last mentioned, these tribes were Saxons. Their leader was Cerdic. They established the kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex); so that the county of Hants was the third district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 16. *Fourth settlement of invaders from Germany.*

—A.D. 530, certain Saxons landed in Essex; so that the county of Essex was the fourth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 17. *Fifth settlement of invaders from Germany.*

—These were *Angles* in Norfolk and Suffolk. This settlement, of which the precise date is not known, took place during the reign of Cerdic in Wessex. The fifth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English was the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; the particular dialect introduced being that of the *Angles*.

§ 18. *Sixth settlement of invaders from Germany.*

—In the year 547, A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the sixth permanent settlement in Britain. The south-eastern counties of Scotland, between the rivers Tweed and Forth, were the districts where they landed. They were of the tribe of the Angles, and their leader was Ida. The south-eastern parts of Scotland constituted the sixth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

Hence, in the county of Kent the original British was superseded by the extension of the dialect of the *Jutes*. Of the three invading tribes the Jutes were the least important.

In the county of Sussex the original British was superseded by the extension of the dialect of the *Saxons* under Ella.

In the following counties it was by the extension of the Saxon introduced by the followers of Cerdic that the original British was supplanted — Hampshire, Dorsetshire, Wilts, part of Somerset, part of Devonshire, part of Surrey, Gloucestershire, Oxfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire. These counties constituted the important kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex).

It was by the extension of the Saxon introduced by the invaders of A.D. 530 that the original British of Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire was superseded.

It was by the extension of the language introduced

by the Angle invaders of Norfolk and Suffolk that the original British of Cambridgeshire and the Isle of Ely, and of parts of Lincolnshire and Northamptonshire, was superseded.

It was by the extension of the language introduced by the Angles of the south of Scotland that the original British was superseded in the following counties—Northumberland, Westmoreland, Cumberland, Cheshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and the North Midland counties.

§ 19. Now, as one of the tribes that invaded England from the coast of Germany called itself the *Saxons*, the language thus introduced was for some time called the *Saxon* language ; indeed, at the present moment the English is so called in Welsh, Manx, and Gaelic.

§ 20. As another of the tribes that invaded England from the coast of Germany called itself the *Angles*, the language thus introduced was for some time called the *Angle* language ; indeed, it is from the particular tribe of the *Angles* that the country has taken the name of *England*.

§ 21. The death of Ecbert took place in 836, A.D. It is believed that not long after the time of Ecbert the different *Angle* and *Saxon* tribes had become consolidated into a single people. It is also believed that about the same time the different dialects had become treated as a single language ; the name by which this language is known being *Anglo-Saxon*. The Anglo-Saxon is the mother-tongue of the present English.

The history of England, from the time of Ecbert to the battle of Hastings, is the history of the Anglo-Saxon Language. During that time it was the language both of the learned and unlearned, and was a written language as well as a spoken one. Not only was it written, but it was one of the earliest cultivated languages of Modern Europe ; so much so, that before there was a single line written either in French or Italian, in Spanish or Portuguese, there was a considerable Anglo-Saxon literature. Whilst a corrupted form of the Latin was the medium of communication through the southern half of Western Europe, the language of England was the language of legislators, annalists, and poets. So early, indeed, was the Anglo-Saxon applied to poetry, that the earliest specimens of Anglo-Saxon verse represent the manners and legends of a time previous to the introduction of Christianity, and during the time of German Paganism. Nay more, they represent the manners and legends of a time when our ancestors belonged to the continent of Germany rather than to the island of Britain. This is the earliest period of the Anglo-Saxon literature, the compositions being exclusively poems.

Next in order of time to the oldest Anglo-Saxon poems come the oldest Anglo-Saxon laws ; such as the laws of Ina, Wihtred, Athelstan, and other Anglo-Saxon Kings.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is of uncertain date ; indeed, it was put together at different periods. It

gives us, in the form of annals, the chief events that occurred in the Anglo-Saxon portions of England from the first settlement to the reign of Stephen.

A poem, written by a monk of Whitby in Yorkshire, named Cædmon, is one of the most remarkable of the Anglo-Saxon poems. Much of its sublimity is taken from the Old Testament, of which it is a metrical paraphrase. The poem of Cædmon is an example of what may be called the *Sacred Epics* of the Anglo-Saxons. Next in point of importance to the work of Cædmon, are the following poems:—

a. Judith—A fragment on the actions of Judith, the slayer of Holophernes.

b. Andreas—The metrical life and acts of St. Andrew.

c. Helena—The discovery of the true cross by Helena, mother of Constantine the Great.

Of the prose writers, known to us by name, the two most conspicuous are, Alfred the Great and Ælfric. The influence of the former upon the laws and learning of England is a matter of general history; whilst the most important collection of Anglo-Saxon homilies is the work of the latter.

§ 22. *The Anglo-Saxon is the mother-tongue of the present English.*—Nevertheless, if we compare the present English of the nineteenth century with the Anglo-Saxon of the ninth, the following points of difference will be observed:—

1. The Anglo-Saxon language contained words that

are either wanting in the present English, or, if found, used in a different sense.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
lyft	<i>air</i>	swithe	<i>very</i>
lichoma	<i>body</i>	sáre	<i>very</i>
stefn	<i>voice</i>	sith	<i>late</i>
theód	<i>people</i>	reccan	<i>care about</i>
ece	<i>everlasting</i>	ongitan	<i>understand</i>
hwæt	<i>sharp</i>	sweltan	<i>die, &c.</i>

These words, which are very numerous, although lost (or changed as to meaning) in the current English, are often preserved in the provincial dialects.

2. The present English contains words that were either wanting in the Anglo-Saxon, or, if found, used in a different sense—*voice, people, conjugal, philosophy, alchemist, very, survey, shawl*, and other words, to the amount of some hundreds. These have been introduced since the time of the Anglo-Saxons, from the Latin, Greek, French, Arabic, and other languages.

3. Words found in both Anglo-Saxon and English appear in different forms in the different languages.

A. S.	English.	A.S.	English.
án	<i>one</i>	gærs	<i>grass</i>
eahta	<i>eight</i>	ic	<i>I</i>
nygon	<i>nine</i>	spræc	<i>speech</i>
endlufon	<i>eleven</i>	eáge	<i>eye, &c.</i>

4. The Anglo-Saxon contained grammatical forms that are wanting in the present English.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
tung- <i>ena</i>	<i>tongues</i>	god- <i>ra</i>	<i>good</i>
word- <i>a</i>	<i>words</i>	wi- <i>t</i>	<i>we two</i>
treow- <i>u</i>	<i>tree-s</i>	gi- <i>t</i>	<i>ye two</i>
god- <i>an</i>	<i>good</i>	hwo- <i>ne</i>	<i>who-m</i>
god- <i>re</i>	<i>good</i>	we luf- <i>iath</i>	<i>we love</i>
god- <i>ne</i>	<i>good</i>	we luf- <i>odon</i>	<i>we loved</i>
god- <i>es</i>	<i>good</i>	to luf- <i>ianne</i>	<i>to love, &c.</i>

5. The present English contains grammatical forms that were wanting in Anglo-Saxon. The words *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, *hers*, were unknown in Anglo-Saxon.

6. Grammatical forms found both in the Anglo-Saxon and the English, appear in different forms in the different languages.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
smith- <i>es</i>	<i>smith's</i>	hvá- <i>m</i>	<i>who-m</i>
smith- <i>as</i>	<i>smith-s</i>	blets- <i>ode</i>	<i>bless-ed, &c.</i>

7. Phrases and sentences were used in Anglo-Saxon which are inadmissible in the present English.

8. Phrases and sentences are used in the modern English which were inadmissible in Anglo-Saxon.

§ 23. A fresh language was introduced into England by the Norman conquest. This may be called either *Anglo-Norman*, or *Norman-French*.

SPECIMEN,

From the Anglo-Norman Poem of Charlemagne.

Un jur fu Karleún al Seint-Denis muster,
 Reout pris sa corune, en croiz seignat sun chef,
 E ad ceinte sa espée; li pons fud d'or mer,
 Dux i out e demeines e baruns e chevalers.
 Li emperéres reguardet la reine sa muillers;
 Ele fut ben corunée al plus bel e as meuz.

In the year 1066 A.D. Edward the Confessor died, and was succeeded by Harold, who was the last of the Anglo-Saxon Kings of England. Upon the 28th of September of the same year, William Duke of Normandy, landed at Pevensey in Sussex; and on the 18th of October was fought the decisive battle of Hastings. Now the language of William the Conqueror was by no means akin to the Anglo-Saxon: indeed it was as different from it as the Anglo-Saxon was from the original British. And the language of his followers was the same. It was wholly foreign to England. It was a language of France, just as the Anglo-Saxon was a language of Germany; and it encroached upon the Anglo-Saxon of England just as that language, some centuries before, had encroached upon the original British.

And just as the languages or dialects akin to the Anglo-Saxon are to be sought for in Germany, so are the languages, or dialects, akin to the Norman to be sought for in France. The Anglo-Saxon of the followers of Hengist and Horsa resembled the modern German, and Dutch. The Norman of the followers of William the Conqueror resembled the modern French.

The change effected upon the English Language by the Norman Conquest was not less than the change effected by the same event upon the property of the country, its habits, its liberties, and its constitution; and the results of the battle of Hastings upon the *literature* of England were proportionate to the altera-

tion of our *language*. Perhaps there were not a hundred men in William's army who understood the Anglo-Saxon idiom. Even those who spoke it, despised it as the language of a conquered nation. Now it was natural that the language of the King should be the language of his attendants also ; and hence, the great nobles who composed his court spoke Anglo-Norman amongst their equals, Anglo-Saxon to their servants. The language of the nobles was the language of the lawyers, and the language of the lawyers was the language of the Church ; so that the Court, the Courts of Law, and the Cloisters, were equally Normanized. Then, as a great portion of the original landholders were dispossessed, and their estates transferred to Norman Barons, and as the new lords of the soil resided on their estates, and surrounded themselves with numerous retainers, the language that was spoken in the great towns became the language, more or less, of the country around. Without knowing the exact extent to which the Anglo-Norman displaced the Anglo-Saxon, we know the following particular facts :—

1. Letters even of a private nature were written in Latin till the beginning of the reign of Edward I., soon after 1270, when a sudden change brought in the use of French.

2. Conversation between the Members of the Universities was ordered to be carried on either in Latin or French.

3. The Minutes of the Corporation of London, re-

corded in the Town Clerk's Office, were in French, as well as the Proceedings in Parliament and in the Courts of Justice.

4. In Grammar-Schools, boys were made to construe their Latin into French.

On the other hand, the Anglo-Norman of England was not *exactly* the same as the French of France. In the reign of Edward III., Chaucer, describing the manners of an English nun, says that "she spoke French cleverly, but as it was spoken in the school of Stratford-le-Bow, rather than as it was spoken at Paris."

And Frenche she spake full feteously,
After the scole of Stratford atte Bowe,
For French of Parys was to her unknowe.

Prologue to the Canterbury Tales.

§ 24. From the battle of Hastings to the death of John, the language of England is called, not *Anglo-Saxon*, but *Semi-Saxon*, or *Half-Saxon*.

SPECIMEN

In two dialects.

Bladud hafde ene sune,
Leir was ihaten ;
Efter his fader daie,
He heold þis drihlice lond,
Somed an his live,
Sixti winter.
He makade ane riche burh,
þurh radfulle his crafte,
And he heo lette nemnen,
Efter him seolvan ;
Kaer-Leir hehte þe burh.

Bladud hadde one sone,
Leir was ihote ;
After his fader he held þis lond,
In his owene hond,
Ilaste his lif-dages,
Sixti winter.
He makede on riche borh,
þorh wisemenne reade,
And hine lette nemni,
After him seolve ;
Kair-Leir hehte þe borh.

Leof heo wes þan kinge,	Leof he was þan kinge;
þa we, an ure leod-quide,	þe we, on ure speche,
Leir-chestre clepiad,	Leþ-chestre cleopieþ,
Geare a þan holde dawon.	In þan eolde daiye.

§ 25. From the death of John to the death of Edward the Second, the language of England is called *Old English*.

§ 26. From the death of Edward the Second to the death of Queen Mary, the language of England is called *Middle English*.

§ 27. The period of the *New*, or *Modern English*, begins with the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and is the English of the present time.

Such are the stages of the English language, which, if we look to the *English* period alone, form three divisions, named (as above) Old English, Middle English, and New English. By adding the two stages of the Anglo-Saxon (*i. e.* of the Anglo-Saxon, properly so called, and of the *Semi-Saxon*), we increase the number to five. Now the divisions thus established are of great practical convenience in the consideration of the history of our language. Nevertheless, it must not be supposed that the transition from one stage to another is by any means so sudden and definite as it appears to be according to the preceding dates. It cannot be believed that, *exactly* at the death of King John, the language changed from Semi-Saxon to Old English, or *exactly* at the accession of Edward the Third, from Old English to Middle. The change was *gradual*. The reigns, however, of the Kings are taken for the sake of putting the epochs in question in

the form best fitted for being remembered. For the sake, however, of explaining the real nature of the changes of the English Language, the following sketch of its history is annexed :—

The first four reigns after the Conquest were unfavourable to the cultivation of literature *at all* : since the influence of the Norman-French, although sufficient to depress the Anglo-Saxon, was not sufficient to establish a flourishing literature of its own. *Some* works were composed in *both* languages. They were, however, in each case both few and unimportant.

Henry II.—The reign of Henry the *Second* was a favourable period for *one* of the languages of England, viz., for the Norman-French (or Anglo-Norman). It was also favourable for another language allied to the Anglo-Norman, but by no means identical with it. The river Loire, in France, forms a boundary between the northern class of French dialects and the southern class ; the Anglo-Norman belonging to the former. The marriage of Henry the Second with Eleanor Aquitaine introduced relations between England and the *Southern* portions of France ; whereas the influence of the Conquest had been to create a connexion with Normandy only. A fresh form of literature, in a fresh form of the French language, followed the intercourse between England on the one hand, and the Southern portion of France on the other, whilst the name for this language and literature was *Provençal*—*i. e.* the language and literature of Pro-

vence. Now, although this new influence deserves to be noted, it is not to be compared with the influence of either the *Anglo-Norman* or the original *Semi-Saxon*: still it deserves to be noted. Hence, the Provençal was a third language applied to the literature of the English. A fourth language was the Latin, this being at that time, and having been previously, what it long continued, the language of the learned throughout Europe.

Henry III.—A proclamation of Henry the Third's to the people of Huntingdonshire is generally considered to be the first specimen of *English*, properly so called, *i. e.* of English, as opposed to Semi-Saxon. Date, A.D. 1258. Still the preponderating language for *written compositions* is the Norman-French (or Anglo-Norman).

"Henry, thurg Godes fultome, King on Engleneloande, lhoaurd on Yrloand, Duke on Normand, on Acquitain, Eorl on Anjou, send I greting, to alle hise holde, ilærde & ilewerde on Huntingdonschiere.

"That witen ge well alle, thæt we willen & unnen thæt ure rædesmen alle other, the moare del of heom, thæt beoth ichosen thurg us and thurg thæt loandes-folk on ure Kuneriche, habbith idon, end schullen don, in the worthnes of God, and ure threowthe, for the freme of the loande, thurg the besigte of than toforen iseide rædesmen, beo stedfast and ilestinde in alle thinge abutan ænde, and we heaten alle ure treowe, in the treowthe thæt heo us ogen, thet heo stede-feslicche healden & weren to healden & to swerien the isetnesses thet beon makede and beo to makien, thurg than toforen iseide rædesmen, other thurg the moare del of heom alswo, alse hit is before iseide. And thet æhcother helpe thet for to done bitham ilche other, aganes alle men in alle thet heo ogt for to done, and to foangen. And noan ne of mine loande, ne of egetewhere, thurg this besigte, muge beon ilet other

iwersed on oniewise. And gif oni ether onie cumen her ongenes, wi willen & heaten, that alle ure treowe heom healden deadlich-istan. And for that we willen that this beo stædfast and lestinde, we senden gew this writ open, iseined with ure seel to halden amanges gew ine hord. Witnes us-selven æt Lundæn, thæne egetetenthe day on the monthe of Octobr, in the two and fower-tigthe geare of ure crunning."

Edward III.—This is the reign when the *reaction* of the original English against the Norman-French began ; and the time from which it steadily and progressively increased. The father of English poetry, Geoffrey Chaucer, wrote under Edward III. ; so did his cotemporary Wycliffe, and others of almost equal importance ; their predecessors, who had written in English at all, having written either in the Old English, or the Semi-Saxon.

Edward IV.—The reign in which printing was introduced into England by William Caxton.—By this time, the Anglo-Norman language had become almost wholly superseded by the English, remaining only as the language of a few of the Courts of Law. The English, however, as may be expected, has changed from the English of Chaucer, and is approaching the character of the English of the writers under Henry VIII. In South Britain no poetical successor worthy of comparison with Chaucer has appeared. In Scotland, however, there is the dawning of a bright period—the reign of James IV.

Henry VIII.—The establishment of the Protestant Religion, and the revival of Classical Learning, are the two great influences in the reign of Henry VIII. ;

the effects of both upon the style of our writers and the language itself being beneficial. The works of Sir Thomas More, and the earliest translations of the Bible, are the chief instances of the now rapidly-increasing English literature. The great *Scotch* poet of this time is Dunbar.

Elizabeth.—During the long reign of Queen Elizabeth the language underwent considerable change, and the early Elizabethan writers are much less like the writers of the present century than the later ones. Indeed, what is called the age of Queen Elizabeth comprizes the reign of James the First, and part of that of Charles the First. This is the age of Shakspeare and his cotemporary dramatists. It is also the time when the present translation of the Bible was made. The extent to which the English of the time in question is marked by peculiar indications of antiquity is generally known; so that the present general sketch of the history of the English language ends with the death of James the First.

§ 28. *Particular relations of the English Language with certain languages of the Continent of Europe.*—The *modern* Language most closely allied to the *modern* English of England, is the Dutch of Holland:—

MARK, Chap. i.

1. Het begin des Evangelies van JEZUS CHRISTUS, den Zoon van God.

2. Gelijk geschreven is in de Profeten: ziet, Ik zend mijnen Engel voor uw aangezicht, die uwen weg voor u heen bereiden zal.

3. De stem des roependen in de woestijn : bereidt den weg des Heeren, maakt zijne paden regt !

4. Johannes was doopende in de woestijn, en predikende den doop der bekeering tot vergeving der zonden.

5. En al het Joodsche land ging tot hem uit, en die van Jerûzalem; en werden allen van hem gedoopt in the rivier de Jordaan, belijdende hunne zonden.

6. En Johannes was gekleed met kemelshaar, en met eenen lederen gordel om zijne lendenen, en at sprinkhannen en wilden honig.

7. En hij predikte, zeggende : na mij komt, die sterker is dan ik, wien ik niet waardig ben, nederbukkende, den riem zijner schoenen te ontbinden.

8. Ik heb ulieden wel gedoopt met water, maar hij zal u doopen met den Heiligen Geest.

§ 29. The *ancient* language most closely allied to the *ancient* Anglo-Saxon of England, is the Old-Saxon of the Continent.

The Saxons of Northern and Western Germany (as seen above) emigrated into England; and this, although but one of their excursions, indicates a separation of their language : 1stly, into the Saxon that was exported into England, 2ndly, into the Saxon of those who kept at home. Of the language of those who remained at home we have (amongst others) a most important specimen, in the poem intitled *Heliand*, the *Healer* or *Saviour*. This is a metrical Gospel Harmony, in a language similar to, but not identical with, the Anglo-Saxon, and it was spoken in Cleves and Westphalia. It was called, by the early Gothic scholars, *Dano-Saxon*, under the idea that in it could be found traces of the Danish of Canute's time. This is not the case. What it really

represents is the language of some tribe closely allied to the Saxons that migrated into England, but which, itself, remained in its original locality on the Continent.

PSALM liv.

2. Gehori Got gebet min; in ne furuuir bida mina; thenke ti mi; in gehori mi.

3. Gidruouit bin an tilogon minro, in mistrot bin fan stimmon fundes, in fan arbeide sundiges.

4. Uuanda geneigedon an mi unreht, in an abulge unsuoti uuaron mi.

5. Herta min gidruouit ist an mi, in forta duodis fiel ouir mi.

6. Forthta in binonga quamon ouer mi, in bethecoda mi thusternussi.

7. In ic quad "uuie sal geuan mi fetheron also duuon, in ic fliugon sal, in raston sal."

§ 30. The ancient language next in nearness to the Anglo-Saxon is the Old Frisian. This is the present dialect of the Dutch province of Friesland in its oldest form.

Respecting the Frisian Language, the following facts are of importance:—1st, that it is either a separate language, or else a dialect with very marked peculiarities; in other words, that the present Frisian of Friesland differs from the Dutch of the other parts of Holland, whilst the *Old* Frisian was equally distinguished from the *Old* Saxon and the *Anglo*-Saxon.

2nd. That at present it is spoken in a few isolated and unconnected localities; but that there are reasonable grounds for believing that at an earlier period it was spoken over a much larger area.

Old Frisian compared with Anglo-Saxon.

O.F.	A.S.	English.
'Age	Eáge	<i>Eye.</i>
Háved	Heáfod	<i>Head.</i>
Kind	Cild	<i>Child.</i>
Nacht	Niht	<i>Night.</i>
Déde	Dæ'd	<i>Deed.</i>
Nose	Nasu	<i>Nose.</i>
'Ein	'Agen	<i>Own.</i>
Dúa	Dón	<i>To do.</i>
Slá	Sleán	<i>Slay.</i>
Gunga	Gangan	<i>Go (Gang).</i>

New Frisian compared with the Dutch.

FRISIAN.	DUTCH.
1.	1.
De noordewyn hu kaald en stoer	De noordewind zo koud en guur
En fel yn winterflaaigen,	En fel in wintervlagen,
Al waait ze trog de laeae su soer,	Al waait hij door de leên zo zuur,
Ys mest nei uis behaaigen.	Is meest naar ons behagen.
2.	2.
Al ys myn man den oppe see,	Al is mijn man dan op de zee,
Hy sol nei huis wol drieuwe,	Hij zal naar huis wel drijven,
En yzzer tuis ov oppe ree,	En is hij 't huis of op de ree,
Su motter tuis wol blieuwe.	Zo moet hij 'thuis wel blijven

§ 31. The modern dialects next, after the Dutch, in nearness to the English, are the *Low* German dialects of Germany; these being the provincial dialects of Westphalia, Oldenburgh, Holstein, Sleswick, Meck-

lenburg, and other parts of Northern and Western Germany.

§ 32. The modern language next, after the Low German dialects, in nearness to the English, is the written language of Germany. This is called High German.

FROM LESSING'S FABLES.

HERKULES.

Als Herkules in den himmel aufgenommen ward, machte er seinen gruss unter allen Göttern der Juno zuerst. Der ganze himmel und Juno erstaunte darüber. "Deiner feindin," rief man ihm zu, "begegnest du so vorzüglich?" "Ja, ihr selbst;" erwiderte Herkules. "Nur ihre verfolgungen sind es, die mir zu den thaten gelegenheit gegeben, womit ich den himmel verdienet habe."

Der Olymp billigte die antwort des neuen Gottes, und Juno ward versöhnt.

§ 33. The ancient language next, after the Old Frisian, in nearness to the Anglo-Saxon, is the *Old High German*; this being the dialects of Bavaria, Franconia, Switzerland, and other contiguous districts, in the oldest form known to us. The Old High German stage of the High German dialects begins in the eighth and ends in the twelfth century.

KRIST, i. 12.

Tho uuarun thar in lante hirta haltente ;

Thes fehes datun uuerta uuidar fianta.

Zi in quam boto sconi, engil scinenti ;

Joh uuurtun sie inliuhte fon himilisen lichte.

§ 34. Both the Dutch and English are much more akin to the Low than to the High German dialects ;

hence, in a general view of the languages and dialects of Germanic origin, it is usual to arrange those that have hitherto been enumerated in *two* divisions,—viz. the High German division, and the Low German division.

§ 35. The High German division contains,—

1. The *old* literary language of Bavaria, Franconia, Switzerland, and other contiguous districts.
2. The *modern* provincial dialects of the same localities.
3. The *present* literary language of Germany.

§ 36. The Low German contains,—

1. The Anglo-Saxon, Semi-Saxon, Old English, Middle English, and New English of England.
2. The Old Saxon.
3. The Old Frisian, the Middle Frisian, and the New Frisian of Friesland.
4. The Dutch of Holland.

A language less closely akin to the English than any of those hitherto enumerated still remains to be mentioned.

The Goths that sacked Rome under Alaric, and that dethroned Augustulus under Theodoric, were of Germanic origin, and the language that they spoke was Germanic also.

Of this language we have a specimen, not later than the fourth century; and as no Anglo-Saxon work is of equal antiquity, the language in question is considered to be the oldest of all the German tongue. It is the Mæso-Gothic; a term of which

the meaning will be understood if, by following the course of the Danube, we reach the Roman province of Mœsia. The *earliest* inhabitants of this province were not akin to any of the tribes of Germany, any more than the original Britons of England were akin to the Anglo-Saxon invaders. In the second century, however, they were conquered by tribes from the north-eastern parts of Germany. These were called Goths, or, more specifically, the Goths of Mœsia.

§ 37. The *oldest* of all the languages, immediately allied to the English and Anglo-Saxon, is the Mœso-Gothic.

MARK, Chap. i.

1. 2. Anastodeins aivaggeljons iesuis xristaus sunaus guþs. sve gameliþ ist in esaï in praufetau. sai. ik insandja aggilu meinana faura þus. saei gamanveiþ vig þeinana faura þus.
3. stibna vopjandins in auþidai. manveiþ vig frauþina. raihtos
4. vaurkeiþ staigos guþs unsaris. vas iohannes dauþjands in auþidai jah merjands dauþein idreigos du aflageinai fra-
5. vaurhtê. jah usiddjedun du imma all iudaialand jah iairusaulymeis jah dauþidai vesun allai in iaurdane awai
6. fram imma andhaitandans fravaurhtim seinaim. vasuþ- þan iohannes gavasips taglam ulbandaus jah gairda filleina bi hup seinana jah matida þramsteins jah miliþ haiþivisk jah
7. merida qiþands. qimiþ svinþoza mis sa afar mis. þizei ik ni im vairþs anahneivands andbindan skaudaraip skohe ia.
8. aþþan ik dauþja izvis in vatin. iþ is dauþeiþ izvis in ahmin veihamma.

As the Mœso-Gothic is a truly German language, and as it is, at least, as different from the High German and the Low German dialects as they are

from each other, the classification of the Germanic branch of languages becomes enlarged; in other words, it falls into three divisions:—

1. The Mæso-Gothic.
2. The High Germanic.
3. The Low Germanic.

Besides, however, the languages of Germany, those of Scandinavia have an affinity with the English, and consequently, require consideration.

§ 38. The Danish of Denmark is allied to the Germanic dialects in general, and, consequently, to the English.

§ 39. The Swedish of Sweden is allied to the Germanic dialects in general, and, consequently, to the English.

§ 40. The Icelandic of Iceland is allied to the Germanic dialects in general, and, consequently, to the English.

§ 41. The language of the Feroe Isles is allied to the Germanic dialects in general, and, consequently, to the English.

§ 42. The Icelandic, in its oldest form is called *Old Norse*.

§ 43. The Icelandic, Feroic, Danish, and Swedish are all derived from the Old Norse, and, consequently, all allied to each other.

§ 44. The Old Norse, the Icelandic, the Feroic, the Swedish and Danish, are much more closely allied to each other than they are with any Germanic dialect. Hence they form a separate group, which is some-

times called the Norse, sometimes the Scandinavian branch of languages.

§ 45. The *Scandinavian* branch, and the *Germanic* branch, together, constitute what is called the *Gothic* stock of languages.

§ 46. The English is a language of the Low German division of the Germanic branch of the Gothic stock of languages. This is its relation in respect to the German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic, &c.

Its relationship to the Anglo-Saxon is of a different kind. To this it stands in the relation of a derived language to a mother tongue, or (changing the expression) the English may be called the Anglo-Saxon in its *most modern* form; whilst the Anglo-Saxon may, with equal propriety, be called the English in its *most ancient* form. However, it is not so important to settle the particular mode of expressing the nature of this relation,¹ as to become familiar with certain facts connected with recent languages as compared with the older ones from which they originate; facts which chiefly arise out of the tenses of the verbs, and the cases of the nouns. The Middle English has inflections which are wanting in the New; and the Old English has inflections which are wanting in the Middle. The Semi-Saxon has inflections that are wanting in the Old English, and the Anglo-Saxon has inflections which are wanting in the Semi-Saxon.

¹ Or (more logically speaking) correlation.

§ 47. The Middle Frisian has inflections which are wanting in the New; and the Old Frisian has inflections which are wanting in the Middle.

§ 48. The older the stage of the Dutch language, the fuller the inflection.

§ 49. The older the stage of the High German, the fuller the inflection. The Middle High German has inflections which are wanting in the New, and the Old High German has inflections that are wanting in the Middle.

§ 50. The inflection of the Mæso-Gothic is fuller than that of any language hitherto enumerated.

§ 51. The older the specimen of the Danish, the more numerous the inflections.

§ 52. The older the specimen of the Swedish, the more numerous the inflections.

§ 53. The older the specimen of the Icelandic, the more numerous the inflections.

So much for the comparison between the different stages of one and the same language. It shows that the earlier the stage, the fuller the inflection; the later the stage, the scantier the inflection; in other words, it shows that as languages become modern they lose their inflections.

Now there is another method of proving this rule; and that is by the comparison of allied languages that change with different degrees of rapidity.

§ 54. The Danish language has changed more rapidly than the Swedish, and, consequently, has fewer of its original inflections.

§ 55. The Swedish language has changed more rapidly than the Feroic, and, consequently, has fewer of its original inflections.

§ 56. The Feroic has changed more rapidly than the Icelandic, and, consequently, has fewer of its original inflections.

§ 57. The Icelandic has changed so slowly that it retains almost all the original inflections of the Old Norse.

§ 58. *General rule for the Gothic languages in respect to their inflections.*—In all the Gothic languages the earlier the stage, the more numerous are the inflections, and *vice versâ*.

PART II.

SOUNDS, LETTERS, AND ACCENT.

§ 59. THE elementary sounds of the English language are forty; of these, thirty-four are simple and six compound.

§ 60. The simple elementary sounds are as follows:—

1. The sound of the letter *a*, in *father*.
2. - - - *a*, in *fate*.
3. - - - *a*, in *fat*.
4. - - - *e*, in *bed*.
5. - - letters *ee* in *feet*.
6. - - letter *i* in *tin*.
- ~~7. - - letters *oo* in *cool*.~~
8. - - letter *u* in *full*.
9. - - letters *aw* in *bawl*.
10. - - letter *o* in *note*.
11. - - - *o* in *not*.
12. - - - *u* in *but*.

These twelve sounds are *vowel* sounds.

13. The sound of the letter *w* in *well*.

14. - - - *y* in *yet*.

These two sounds are *semivowel* (or *half-vowel*) sounds.

15. The sound of the letter *p* in *pain*.
16. - - - *b* in *bane*.
17. - - - *f* in *fane*.
18. - - - *v* in *vane*.
19. - - - *t* in *tin*.
20. - - - *d* in *din*.
21. - - letters *th* in *thin*.
22. - - - *th* in *thine*.
23. - - letter *k* in *kill*.
24. - - - *g* in *gun*.
25. - - - *s* in *seal*.
26. - - - *z* in *zeal*.
27. - - letters *sh* in *shine*.
28. - - letter *z* in *azure*.

These fourteen sounds are called *mute* sounds.

29. The sound of the letters *ng* in *king*.
30. - - letter *h* in *hot*.
31. - - - *l* in *low*.
32. - - - *m* in *mow*.
33. - - - *n* in *no*.
34. - - - *r* in *row*.

These last four sounds are called *liquid* sounds.

The compound elementary sounds are as follows:—

35. The sound of the letters *ou* in *house*.
36. - - - *ew* in *new*.
37. - - letter *i* in *pine*.
38. - - letters *oi* in *voice*.

These four compound sounds are called *Diphthongs*, and are formed by combining a vowel with a semi-vowel.

39. The sound of the letters *ch* in *chest* (or of *tsh*).

40. - - letter *j* in *jest* (or of *dzh*).

These two compound sounds are formed by combining the sound of *t* with that of *sh*, and the sound of *d* with that of *zh* respectively.

§ 61. The Mutes, the Liquids, the Semivowels, with the sounds of *h*, *ng*, *ch*, and *j*, are called Consonants ; all the rest are Vowels.

§ 62. The Mutes are divided into *sharp* and *flat*.

The sharp mutes are seven in number :—

1. The sound of the *p* in *pain*.

2. - - *f* in *vane*.

3. - - *t* in *tin*.

4. - - *th* in *thin*.

5. - - *k* in *kill*.

6. - - *s* in *sign*.

7. - - *sh* in *shine*.

§ 63. The flat mutes are seven in number also :—

1. The sound of the *b* in *bane*.

2. - - *v* in *vane*.

3. - - *d* in *dine*.

4. - - *th* in *thine*.

5. - - *g* in *gun*.

6. - - *z* in *zeal*.

7. - - *z* in *azure*.

§ 64. Each flat mute corresponds with a sharp one, and each sharp with a flat. Thus :—

p is the sharp sound of *b*.

f - - - *v*.

t - - - *d*.

th in *thin* is the sharp sound of *th* in *thine*.

k - - - *g*.

s - - - *z*.

sh in *shine*, - - - *z* in *azure*.

and, conversely

b is the flat sound of *p*.

v - - - *f*.

d - - - *t*.

th in *thine* - - - *th* in *thin*.

g - - - *k*.

z - - - *s*.

z in *azure* - - - *sh* in *shine*.

§ 65. Sounds that correspond with one another, as *sharp* and *flat* and *flat* and *sharp*, are equivalents to one another. Thus:—

p is the sharp equivalent of *b*.

b is the flat equivalent of *p*.

f is the sharp equivalent of *v*.

v is the flat equivalent of *f*.

t is the sharp equivalent of *d*.

d is the flat equivalent of *t*.

and so on throughout.

§ 66. The following sounds are cognate or allied to each other.

1. The sounds of *p*, *b*, *f*, *v*.

2. - - - *t*, *d*, *th*,¹ *th*.²

3. - - - *k*, *g*.

4. - - - *s*, *z*, *sh*, *zh*.³

The arrangement of sounds, as far as we have

¹ As the *th* in *thin*. ² As the *th* in *thine*. ³ As the *z* in *azure*.

hitherto gone, is a *natural* arrangement; that is, vowels are arranged with vowels, consonants with consonants, mutes with mutes, liquids with liquids, and cognate sounds with cognate sounds. It will soon be seen that, besides the *natural* arrangement of the sounds of a language, there is an *artificial* arrangement as well.

§ 67. *Rule 1.*—Two mutes, one of which is sharp, and the other flat, coming together in the same syllable, cannot be *pronounced*.

This may be understood by practising a few combinations according to the following table. The sharp mutes are arranged on the left, the flat ones on the right side of the line.

Sharp.				Flat.			
p	.	.	f	b	.	.	v
t	.	.	th ¹	d	.	.	th ²
k	.	.	—	g	.	.	—
s	.	.	sh	z	.	.	z ³

Now, taking whatever letter we choose from the one side of the line, and joining it immediately, in the same syllable, with any letter whatever from the other side of the line, we find the combination unpronounceable.

<i>abt,</i>	<i>avt,</i>	<i>abth,</i>	<i>avth.</i>
<i>agt,</i>	<i>agp,</i>	<i>agf,</i>	<i>ags.</i>
<i>apd,</i>	<i>afb,</i>	<i>apv,</i>	<i>afd.</i>
<i>atb,</i>	<i>akd,</i>	<i>akz,</i>	<i>akb.</i>
<i>asd,</i>	<i>ashd,</i>	<i>asg,</i>	<i>ashg.</i>

¹ As in *thin*.

² As in *thine*.

³ As in *azure*.

Of course, combinations of this sort can be *written* ; they cannot, however, be pronounced, *each sound remaining unchanged*.

§ 68. *Rule 2.*—A sharp mute immediately preceded by a flat one is changed into its flat equivalent.

The most important application of this rule is the change that takes place when the sound of the letter *s* is added to any word ending in the sounds of *b*, *v*, *d*, *th*,¹ or *g*. In all such cases, *although the spelling remains unaltered*, the *sound* is changed. Thus

Slabs from *slab* is pronounced *slabz*.

Slaves - *slave* - - - *slavz*.

Lads - *lad* - - - *ladz*.

Stags - *stag* - - - *stagz*.

§ 69. *Rule 3.*—A flat mute immediately preceded by a sharp one is changed into its sharp equivalent.

The most important application of this rule is the change that takes place when the sound of the letter *d* is added to any word ending in the sound of *p*, *f*, *k*, or *s*. Thus,

Stepped from *step* is pronounced *stept*.

Packed - *pack* - - - *packt*.

From what has preceded, we may learn that in certain cases the spelling does not exactly represent the pronunciation. It does not do so in the word *stags*. It does not do so in the word *plucked*. It does not do so in the word *glass*. It does not do so in the majority of English words.

¹ As in *thine*.

LETTERS.

Sounds are capable of being expressed in writing by signs. These signs are *seen* by the *eye*, whilst *sounds* are heard by the *ear*.

§ 70. Figures like *b, h, f*, that represent sounds, are called *letters*.

§ 71. The *figures* of the letters are as follow :—

- 5 Vowels, a, e, i, o, u.
- 2 Semi-vowels, y, w.
- 10 Mutes, p, b, f, v, t, d, k, g, s, z.
- 1 Aspirate, h.
- 4 Liquid, l, m, n, r.
- 1 Double sound, j.
- 3 Superfluous letters, c, q, x.

§ 72. Words like *bee, eff, aitch*, &c., are the *names* of letters.

The *names* of the letters are as follow :—

- 5 Vowels, a, e, i, o, you, wy.
- 2 Semivowels, double-you, wy.
- 10 Mutes, bee, dee, eff, gee, kay, pee, ess, tee, vee, zed (or izzard).
- 4 Liquids, el, em, en, err.
- 1 Aspirate, aitch.
- 1 Double letter, jay.
- 3 Superfluous letters, cee, cue, eks.

As the name of a letter by no means corresponds with its sound, it is better, when we compare two sounds with one another, to use the names of the

letter as rarely as possible. Thus, it is not advisable to say

eff is cognate to *vee*.

gee - - *ka*.

ess - - *zed*.

&c. ; since, when we do so, we disguise the affinity between the sounds.

Instead of comparing the *names* of sounds, we must compare the sounds themselves. For this reason we should call

bee	ba.	pee	pa.
dee	da.	err	ra.
eff	fa.	ess	sa.
gee	ga.	tee	ta.
aitch	ha.	vee	va.
el	la.	double u	wa.
em	ma.	wy	ya.
en	na.	zed	za.

By doing this the affinity between sounds is easily detected.

§ 73. The *number* of the letters is twenty-six.

§ 74. Of these twenty-three are necessary and three superfluous.

§ 75. The three superfluous letters are *c*, *q*, and *x*.

§ 76. *C* has two sounds,—its sound in the word *city*, and its sound in the word *cat* ; but, as the first may be represented by *s* (*sity*), and the second by *k* (*kat*), the letter *c* is redundant or superfluous.

§ 77. *Q* has the same sound as *kw*, so that *queen*

may be spelt *kween*; and, hence, the letter *q* is redundant or superfluous.

§ 78. *X* has two sounds; its sound in the word *explain*, and its sound in the word *exist*; but as the first may be represented by *ks* (*eksplain*) and the second by *gz* (*egzist*) the letter *x* is redundant or superfluous.

§ 79. The order of the letters is as follows:—*a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.*

§ 80. The order of the letters is called the *Alphabet*; because, in the Greek language, the names of the first two letters were *alpha* and *beta* respectively; that is, *Alpha* was the name of the letter which we call *a*, and *Beta* of *b*.

§ 81. The order of the Alphabet is only partially a natural order. It is natural in respect to the three letters *l, m, n*, which, being liquids, are placed together. In respect to the remaining letters, it is not natural but artificial. Thus,

b is separated from *p* and placed between *a* and *c*.

<i>d</i>	-	-	<i>t</i>	-	-	-	<i>c</i>	-	<i>e</i> .
<i>f</i>	-	-	<i>v</i>	-	-	-	<i>e</i>	-	<i>g</i> .
<i>s</i>	-	-	<i>z</i>	-	-	-	<i>r</i>	-	<i>t</i> .

And so on throughout.

§ 82. The English Alphabet is *insufficient, redundant, inconsistent, and erroneous*.

§ 83. *Insufficiency*.—For the twelve vowel sounds it has only five signs. For the fourteen mute, no more than ten. The sound of *ng* in *king*, which is

a simple single sound has no simple single sound to express it.

§ 84. *Redundancy*.—The redundant sounds are three—*c*, *q*, and *x*; the first can always be expressed by *s*, or *k*, the second by *kw*, the third by *ks*, or *gz*.

§ 85. *Inconsistency*.—The *f* in *fan*, a simple single sound is expressed by a simple single letter; the *th* in *thin*, although equally simple and single as a sound, is expressed by the combination *th*.

The *ch* in *chest* is a double or compound sound, and is expressed, accordingly, by a combination of letters. The *j* in *jest* is equally compound as a sound, but is not expressed by an equally compound sign. On the contrary, it is spelt like a simple single sound, by the simple single sign *j*.

§ 86. *Erroneousness*.—The sound of the *ee* in *feet* is erroneously considered to be the Long sound of the *e* in *bed*; whereas it is the Long sound of the *i* in *pit*.

The *i* in *bite* is erroneously considered to be the sound of the *i* in *pit*; whereas it is a diphthongal sound.

The *ou* in *house* and the *oi* in *oil* are erroneously looked upon as the compounds of *o* and *i* and of *o* and *u* respectively; whereas the latter element of them is not *i* and *u*, but *y* and *w*.

The *th* in *thin* and the *th* in *thine* are erroneously dealt with as one and the same sound; whereas they are sounds specifically distinct.

The *ch* in *chest* is erroneously dealt with as a modification of *c*; whereas its elements are *t* and *sh*.

§ 87. *Orthographical Expedients*. — The English Language makes up for certain of the aforesaid deficiencies by certain orthographical expedients.

§ 88. Two identical vowels in the same syllable are often used as an orthographical expedient, for the sake of showing that the syllable in which they occur is long—*feet, cool*.

§ 89. Two *different* vowels in the same syllable are often used as an orthographical expedient, *i. e.* for the sake of showing that the syllable in which they occur is long—*plain, main*.

§ 90. The addition of the *e* mute is often used as an orthographical expedient; *i. e.* for the sake of showing that the syllable in which it occurs is long—*plane, mane*.

§ 91. Two identical consonants immediately following a vowel are often used as an orthographical expedient; *i. e.* for the sake of showing that the vowel *h* which precedes them is short—*hiss, hill*.

This expedient is as old as the Classical Languages—*terra, θαλάσσα*. The following extract from the *Ormulum* (written in the thirteenth century) is the fullest recognition of the practice that I have met with:—

And whase wilenn shall þis boc,
 Effþ oþerr siþe writenn,
 Himm bidde ice þatt hett write riht,
 Swa sum þiss boc himm tæcheþþ;

All þwerret utt affterr þatt itt iss
 Uppo þiss firrste bisne,
 Wiþþ all swilc rime als her iss sett,
 Wiþþ also fele wordess :
 And tatt he loke wel þatt he
An boo-staff write twiggess,¹
 Eggwhær þær itt uppo þiss boc
 Iss writenn o þat wise :
 Loke he well þatt hett write swa,
 Forr he ne magg noht elless,
 On Engliash writenn rihht te word,
 þatt wite he wel to soþe.

Secondary objects of certain Orthographical Systems.

The natural aim of Orthography, of Spelling, or of Writing, is to express the *sounds* of a language. Syllables and words it takes as they meet the ear, it translates them by appropriate signs, and so paints them, as it were, to the eye. That this is the natural and primary object is self-evident, but it by no means follows that such is the *sole* object. On the contrary, over and above this natural and primary object there are, with the orthographical systems of most languages, two secondary ones.

a. The sound of the *c*, in *city*, is the sound that we naturally spell with the letter *s*; and if the expression of this sound were the *only* object of our orthographists, the word would be spelt accordingly (*sity*). The following facts, however, traverse this simple view of the matter. The word is a derived word; it is transplanted into our own language from

¹ Write one letter twice.

the Latin, where it is spelt with a *c* (*civitas*); and to change this *c* into *s* conceals the origin and history of the word. For this reason the *c* is retained, although, as far as the mere expression of sounds is concerned, it is a superfluity. In cases like the one adduced the orthography is applied to a secondary object, this application being made on what may be called the *etymological principle*.

b. On the other hand, there is a second principle, which leads to a departure from the primary object of orthography, and which may be called the principle *ob differentiam*. When the word *main* (as in *mainland*) is spelt by means of *ai*, whilst *mane* (as of a horse) is spelt by means of *a-e*, a distinction is drawn in the spelling which has no existence in the pronunciation. So far, then, there is a gain on the part of the written language in respect to perspicuity; since the difference in writing guards against the ambiguity incident to the spoken language.

§ 92. The principle upon which the letter *c* finds place in the English alphabet, when *k* or *s* would answer equally well as mere signs of sounds, is the etymological principle. In the word *city* it shows a connection with the word *civitas*.

§ 93. The principle upon which the combination *ph* is frequently used instead of *f*, is the etymological principle. In the word *philosophy* it shows the connection with the word *philosophia*.

§ 94. The principle upon which the diphthongs *æ*,

and *æ*, are used instead of *ee*, is the etymological principle. In the words *Æneas* and *Cræsus*, they show the connection with the Latin forms (*Æneas* and *Cræsus*).

ACCENT.

§ 95. Certain differences of sound are called *accents*, and the marks that indicate them are called *accents* also.

To understand the nature of *accents*, the following sentences should be read aloud, and particular attention should be directed to the words in *italics*, as well as to the marks over them. If this be done, it will be observed that in each pair of sentences the same word occurs twice; but it will also be noticed that there is a difference in the pronunciation. The first time that each word occurs, the accent is on the first syllable; the second time it occurs it is on the last. Furthermore, the word that is accented on the first syllable is a noun; the word that is accented on the second is a verb. When the difference between nouns and verbs has been explained, the importance of this change of accent will appear. It will then be seen that certain nouns may be converted into verbs simply by transposing the accent.

1. The *éxports* from London are very great; the *ímports* to London are very great also. 2. America *expórts* corn and *impórts* cloth.

1. Honey is an *éxtract* from flowers. 2. You cannot *extráct* honey from all flowers.

1. I have *fréquent* opportunities of visiting home.
2. I *frequent* the playground.

1. This is the *óbject*. 2. I hope you do not *objéct*.

1. *Pérfumes* are agreeable. 2. The flower *per-fúmes* the air.

1. This is a *présent*. 2. I *présent* you with this.

1. This is *próduce* of the farm. 2. Few farms *prodúce* more.

1. I have a *próject* on my mind. 2. The walls *project*.

1. The *rébels* are in danger. 2. He is a bad man who *rebéls*.

1. Take a *súrvey* of the world at large. 2. *Survéy* the world at large.

1. I am in a state of *tórmént*. 2. This *torménts* me.

1. He is an *ábsent* man. 2. He is going to *absént* himself.

1. I am going to a *cóncert*. 2. He is going to *concért* a plan with me.

1. This is bad *cónduct*. 2. I hope that I shall *condúct* myself well.

1. Berwick-upon-Tweed is upon the *cónfines* of England and Scotland. 2. He *confínes* himself to his studies.

1. There is a *cónttract* between us. 2. All things *contráct* under the influence of cold.

To these instances add the following:—

<i>Nouns.</i>	<i>Verbs.</i>	<i>Nouns.</i>	<i>Verbs.</i>
ábstract	abstráct.	déscant	descánt.
áccent	accént.	dígest	digést.
áffix	affíx.	éssay	essáy.
áugment	augmént.	férment	fermént.
cólleague	colléague.	fréquent	frequént.
cómpact	compáct.	íncense	incénse.
cómpound	compoúnd.	ínsult	insúlt.
cómpress	compréss.	pérmit	permit.
cóncrete	concréte.	préfix	prefix.
cónflict	conflict.	présage.	preságe.
cónserve	consérve.	prótest	protést.
cónsort	consórt.	récord	recórd.
cóntrast	contrást.	réfuse	refúse.
cónverse	convérese.	súbject	subjéct.
cónvert	convért.	tránsfer	transfér.
désert	desért.	tránsport	transpórt.

§ 95. Words accented on the last syllable.—

Brigáde, preténce, harpoón, relíeve, detér, assúme, besóught, beréft, befóre, abroád, abóde, abstrúse, intermíx, superádd, cavalíer, &c.

Words accented on the last syllable but one.

— *An'chor, ar'gue, hásten, fáther, fóxes, smítíng, húsbánd, márkét, vápour, bárefoot, disáble, terrífic, &c.*

Words accented on the last syllable but two.—

Régular, an'tidote, for'tify, suscéptible, incontrovértible, &c.

Words accented on the last syllable but three (rare).—*Réceptacle, régulating, tálkativeness, ábsolutely, lúminary, inévitable, &c.*

HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE ENGLISH ALPHABET.

In §§ 82—86, we have seen that the English Alphabet has several faults in the way of redundancy, insufficiency, erroneousness, and inconsistency. In many cases these can be accounted for by considering the history of the alphabet, by remembering from what language it was originally adopted, and by asking whether, on its application to the English, it was properly accommodated to the character of the language,—lastly, whether it has changed with the changes which that language has undergone.

When these questions are answered, many of the imperfections which are discovered in the English Alphabet will be accounted for. No alphabet, and no system of orthography should be criticised without due notice being taken of its history.

The next fact bearing on this subject may be obtained by comparing the English Language with any of the modern languages of Europe—such as the German or French. When we do this we discover that it very rarely happens that two different languages exactly agree in the number and nature of their elementary sounds.

a. The following sounds are wanting both in French and German, whilst they occur in English :—

The *th* in *then*.

- *th* - *thine*.

- *j* - *judge*.

- *ch* - *church*.

- *u* - *duck*.

- *w* - *will*.

b. The following sounds are wanting in English, whilst they occur both in German and French:—

The *u* in *lune*.¹

- *eu* - *neuf*.²

These examples are enough to show that two languages may differ in respect to the sounds which an alphabet is required to represent; from which it follows that an alphabet may be very well adapted for one language, without being so well suited to another.

Now, all the alphabets of Europe, with the exception of the Turkish and the Russian, are derived from the Latin alphabet of the Romans; and it is not to be expected that this alphabet should suit all languages alike. For an alphabet to do this, it should be particularly accommodated to each particular language. Generally speaking, this has been done imperfectly.

The English alphabet is founded upon the alphabet of the Anglo-Saxons.

The alphabet of the Anglo-Saxons was derived from the Latin alphabet.

¹ In German, spelt *ü*.

² In German, spelt *ö*.

In applying the Latin alphabet to the Anglo-Saxon language, the accommodation, without being particularly faulty, was imperfect.

In applying the Anglo-Saxon Alphabet to the English, the accommodation was not only imperfect, but faulty.

This arose chiefly from the influence of the Norman Conquest.

The Norman Alphabet, although, like the Anglo-Saxon, it was derived from the Latin, was accommodated to a different language.

So that the Anglo-Norman and the Anglo-Saxon principles of spelling were conflicting.

Three, amongst many of these points of difference, were the following:—

§ 97. The Anglo-Saxon Language had a simple single sign for the simple single sound of the *th* in *thin* (p). This became lost after the Conquest.

§ 98. The Anglo-Saxon had a simple single sign for the simple single sound of the *th* in *thine* (ð). This became lost after the Conquest.

§ 99. The Anglo-Saxon language spelt words beginning with *ch*, by means of *ce*. The Anglo-Norman spelt them by means of *ch*—*Chester*, *Ceaster*.

Other details could be added, but these are sufficient to show that the imperfections of the English Alphabet are not things that have been adopted from choice, but that they are, to a certain extent, the natural results from the history of the language.

PART III.

INFLECTION.

Preliminary facts in Logic.—Previous to the consideration of the Parts of Speech, it is necessary to become acquainted with the chief facts in the

STRUCTURE OF PROPOSITIONS,

and with the difference between

INVARIABLE AND VARIABLE NAMES.

STRUCTURE OF PROPOSITIONS.

§ 100. Every sentence, or part of a sentence, in which *something is affirmed of something*, is a proposition.—Thus, *the day is fine* is a proposition; because, concerning the *day*, it is affirmed that *it is fine*.

§ 101. Every sentence, or part of a sentence, in which *something is denied of something*, is a proposition.—Thus, *the day is not fine* is a proposition; because, concerning *the day*, it is *denied* that *it is fine*.

§ 102. Hence it follows that every sentence, or part of a sentence, in which *something is either affirmed or denied of something* is a proposition; so that

propositions are of two kinds, *affirmative* and *negative*.

To understand more fully the nature of propositions, let us suppose two persons talking together.

It is certain that they talk about something,—*e. g. the weather*.

It is also certain that they say something about something; *e. g.* they say of the weather *that it is hot*, or *that it is not hot*.

One may assert that it is *hot*. In this case the subject spoken of is *the weather*, concerning which there is a fact affirmed, *viz. that it is hot*.

The other may assert that it is *not hot*; in which case the subject spoken of is *the weather*, concerning which a fact is *denied*, *viz.*, the fact of its being *hot*.

If we consider the great extent to which statements concerning particular objects, or classes of objects, form the staple of human conversation, if we remember how much of our speech is applied to making different assertions concerning different subjects, and if we convince ourselves of the degrees in which we are continually either affirming or denying something of something, we shall perceive the great proportion which that part of our language which takes the form of a proposition bears to that which does not do so.

Following up this view, we may ask, into how many parts a proposition is divided? In the first place, there are two *somethings*—the *something* spoken

about, and the *something* said concerning it. Thus, in the proposition *man is mortal*, the quality, property, or attribute expressed by the word *mortal* is affirmed concerning the being *man*; so that *man* is one part of the proposition, *mortal* another.

Again,—in the proposition *ice is not hot*, the property, quality, or attribute expressed by the word *hot* is denied of *ice*. *Ice*, therefore, is one part of the proposition, *hot* another.

Summer is pleasant,

Winter is cold,

Life is short,

Iron is useful,

Bread is cheap;

or,

Summer is *not* pleasant,

Winter is *not* cold,

Life is *not* short,

Iron is *not* useful,

Bread is *not* cheap,

are all examples of the same kind.

There must be something, the name of which answers to the question *What are you talking about?*

And when that is answered, there must also be another something the name of which answers to the question *What do you say about it?*

Thus,—

Q. *What do you talk about?*

A. *The weather.*

Q. *What did you say about it?*

A. *That it was hot?*

or,

A. *That it was not hot.*

To say *summer is—, winter is—, life is—, &c.,* is to combine words to no purpose. The combination conveys no meaning.

To say—*is pleasant,—is cold,—is short, &c.,* is also to combine words to no purpose. The combination conveys no meaning.

But, farther, to say *summer—pleasant, winter—cold, life—short,* is to combine words to no purpose. The combination conveys no meaning. This shows that there are *three* parts in a proposition.

Each of the above-mentioned expressions is imperfect, and it may be seen how it is imperfect.

In the expression *summer is—*, we have the name (*summer*) denoting the object concerning which we affirm something; and we have also the word denoting the existence of an affirmation (*is*). What, however, that affirmation is, is unexplained.

In the expression—*is pleasant* we find what was wanted in the previous one, viz., an affirmation concerning something. The name, however, of this *something* is unexplained.

Lastly, in the expression *summer—pleasant*, although we find both the name of an object (*summer*), and the name of a property, quality, or attribute (*pleasant*), we find no word or sign by which we can tell whether this property, quality, or attribute of

pleasantness belongs or does not belong to summer; in other words, there is nothing to show whether the quality expressed by the word *pleasant* is denied or affirmed of the word *summer*. Hence, every proposition consists of three parts.

§ 103. The three parts of which a proposition consists are, 1. The Subject; 2. The Predicate; and 3. The Copula.

The Subject.—The something concerning which we make a statement, whether in the way of affirmation or denial, or the subject of our discourse, is called the Subject; so that the Subject is the word denoting the person or thing concerning which something is affirmed or denied. *Man, summer, winter, &c.*, are Subjects, and we can assert of them that they are *mortal, pleasant, cold, &c.*; or else that they are not so, *i. e.* that they are *not mortal, not pleasant, not cold, &c.* In the first case, the proposition is affirmative, in the second negative.

The Predicate.—The name of the notion connected with the subject of our discourse is called the Predicate. *Mortal, warm, cold,* are predicates.

The Copula.—That part of a proposition which connects the subject and predicate is called the Copula; and it is the part which serves as a sign to show whether the proposition be affirmative or negative. In the previous example the word *is* forms an affirmative Copula, the words *is not* a negative one.

§ 104. Names are of two kinds, invariable and variable.

This distinction may be understood by contrasting the meaning of such a word as *I*, on the one hand, with such a word as *father*, on the other.

Father is a name denoting any individual that stands in a certain relation to another individual named *son*. The number of such individuals is indefinite. Nevertheless they may be taken as a class, which class is denoted by the general name in question (*father*). This name is invariable, since it cannot be applied to any object not belonging to the class which it denotes.

The word *I*, on the other hand, is a variable name. Its meaning varies with the person in whose mouth it occurs. When *William* says *I*, it means *William*; when *Thomas* says *I*, it means *Thomas*. If a *mother* says *I*, it means a *mother* and a *female*; if a *father* says *I*, it means a *father* and a *male*. Even if an inanimate object be personified and be supposed to speak about itself and to say *I*, it means that inanimate object. It denotes the speaker whoever it may be; but it is not the invariable name of any speaker whatever.

Preliminary rules of Euphony.—Previous to the consideration of the changes effected by inflection, it is necessary to become acquainted with the five fundamental rules of Euphony.

§ 105. *Rule 1.*—Two mutes, one of which is sharp and the other flat, coming together in the same syllable, cannot be pronounced.

§ 106. *Rule 2.*—A sharp mute, immediately preceded by a flat one, is changed into its flat equivalent.

§ 107. *Rule 3.*—A flat mute, immediately preceded by a sharp one, is changed into its sharp equivalent.

§ 108. *Rule 4.*—In certain cases, a vowel or a liquid has the same effect upon the sharp letter *s*, as a flat mute.

§ 109. *Rule 5.*—When two identical or cognate sounds come together in the same syllable, they must be separated from each other by the insertion of the sound of the *e* in *bed*. Thus,

According to rules 1 and 2, what we spell *stags* is pronounced *stagz*.

According to Rules 1 and 3, what we spell *stepped* is pronounced *stept*.

According to Rules 1, 2, 3, and 4, what we spell

Hills is pronounced ¹*hillz*.

Stems — ¹*stemz*.

Horns — ¹*hornz*.

Stars — ¹*starz*

Boys — ¹*boyz*, &c.

According to Rule 5, when we add the sign of the plural number, of the genitive case, or of the third person singular to a word ending in *s*, we add also the sound of the letter *e*.

¹ Not *hillce*, *stemce*, *hornce*, *starce*, *boyce*, &c. although all such combinations are pronounceable.

From *loss* we form *loss-es* not *loss-s*.
 — *cross* — *cross-es* — *cross-s*.
 — *fish* — *fish-es* — *fish-s*.
 — *church*¹ — *church-es* — *church-s*, &c.

By the same rule we add, as the sign of past tense, or participle, to words ending in *d* or *t*, not the simple sound of *d* alone, but that of *ed*.

From *plant* we form *plant-ed* not *plant-d*.
 — *board* — *board-ed* — *board-d*.

It may now be asked how, if this be the case, it comes to pass that we have in English such words as *slabs*, *woods*, *flags*, &c., where *b*, *d*, and *g*, are *flat*, whilst *s* is *sharp*? The answer is, that in such words the *s* is *written* or *printed* only, and that it is not pronounced. The sound is the sound of *z*, just as truly as if the words were written *slabz*, *woodz*, *flagz*.

In all these cases it is the sound of the letter *s* which has been changed; and the reason why it was changed has been the necessity of *accommodating* it to the flat sound of the mute that went before it.

It still, however, remains a question why the letter *s* continues to be written and printed, when, all the while, the sound is that of *z*. Why not *write z*, as well as *sound* it? Can any reason be given why the spelling should be one thing and the pronunciation another? A reason *can* be given. In the Anglo-Saxon stage of our language, the sound of *s* was not

¹ Sounded as *tshurtsh*.

attached *immediately* to the words wherein it occurred as an addition. It was preceded by either *a*, or *e*. Hence, the syllable added was either *es*, or *as*. Now this began with a vowel, and consequently could be added to all words without exception, whether they ended in a liquid, or a mute, or whether the mute was sharp or flat. The old plural of *bird*, was *brid-as*, and the old genitive case, *brid-es*, when the *s* could be pronounced as *s*; not, as at present, *birds*, and *bird's*, when the *s* must be pronounced as *z*. In course, however, of time, the vowel was lost, the two mutes came together, the combination became unpronounceable, and the sound changed, whilst the spelling remained.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 110. An *invariable* name capable of forming, by itself, *either* a subject or a predicate, is called a substantive.

§ 111. A word capable of forming, by itself, a predicate but not a subject, is called an adjective.

§ 112. Substantives and adjectives, collectively, are called nouns.

§ 113. A *variable* name capable of forming, by itself, *either* a subject or a predicate, is called a pronoun. A pronoun agrees with a substantive in respect to its power in propositions, but differs from it in respect to its power as a name.

§ 114. A word capable of forming, by itself, the

copula of a proposition, is called a *verb substantive*.

§ 115. A word capable of forming, by itself, the copula *and* predicate, is called a verb proper, or, simply, a *verb*.

§ 116. Nouns are *declined*, verbs *conjugated*. *Inflection* is the term for declension and conjugation taken together.

DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§ 117. A substantive is an *invariable* name, capable of forming, by itself, *either* the subject or the predicate of a proposition—*Fire is hot—This is fire*.

§ 118. Substantives, in English, are declined in respect to *number*, and in respect to *case*.

§ 119. The numbers are two—*singular* and *plural*.

§ 120. The cases, also, are two—*nominative* and *possessive*.

RULE I.

§ 121. The nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding the sound of *s*, *z*, or *ez*, according to the five rules of euphony.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
lip	¹ lips		path	paths
muff	muffs		stick	sticks.

Here the spelling and sound agree.

In the following instances the spelling and sound do *not* agree.

¹ The parts of the word where the change occurs are marked in *italics*.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur. (as spelt.)</i>	<i>Plur. (as sounded.)</i>
slab	slabs	slabz.
knave	knaves	knavz.
lad	lads	ladz.
stag	stags	stagz.

In words like *losses*, the plural of *loss*, the spelling and sound partly agree and partly disagree. The insertion of the *e*, by which the two sounds of *s* are separated, is agreeable to the pronunciation. On the other hand, the syllable that is added is really *ez*, not *es*; since the plural of words like

<i>loss</i>	is not	<i>losses</i>	but <i>lossez</i> ,
<i>cross</i>	-	<i>crosses</i>	- <i>crossez</i> , &c.

Observe—All words ending in *x* really end in *s*, since *x* is nothing more than *ks* (or *ex*.) Most words ending in *ch* and *ge* really end in *sh*; since *ch* is *tsh*, and *ge* is *dzh*. Hence words like

<i>fox</i>	make their plural in <i>es</i> —	<i>fox-es</i> ,
<i>church</i>	-	- <i>church-es</i> , ¹
<i>judge</i>	-	- <i>judg-es</i> . ²

RULE 2.

§ 122.—The possessive case is formed from the nominative by adding the sound of *s*, *z*, or *ez*, according to the five rules of euphony.

Observe 1.—As both the plural number and the genitive case are formed from the same case in the

¹ Just as if it were spelt *tshurtsh-es*.

² Just as if it were spelt *dzhudzh-es*.

same manner, they are the same in form. This, however, is the case in the spoken language only. In writing we distinguish between them by inserting an apostrophe (') before the letter *s*, whenever the form is possessive, as *the father's son*, *the mother's daughter*.

Observe 2.—This identity between the nominative plural and the possessive case singular is of recent origin. In the Anglo-Saxon the plural ended in *-as*, as *smith-as* = *smiths*, whilst the possessive ended in *-es*, as *smith-es* = *smith's*. As soon, however, as the vowels disappeared, the words became identical; as may be seen by subtracting the vowel *a* from *smithas*, and the vowel *e* from *smithes*. In either case the word that remains is *smiths*.

Observe 3.—The possessive case of the plural number occurs only in those words where the nominative plural does *not* already end in *-s*; consequently, it is found in a few words only:—

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>
men	men's
brethren	brethren's
children	children's
oxen	oxen's

§ 123. This arises because, when the nominative plural already ends in *s*, it is inconvenient to add a second; hence, we do *not* use such expressions as *the fatherses children*, *the sisterses brethren*, *the masterses men*, and *the ownerses oxen*, although we say

the children's fathers, the brethren's sisters, the men's masters, the oxen's owners.

The difference, however, which we do not express in sound, we indicate in writing, and distinguish the genitives plural by adding (') to the final *s*, as *the fathers' children, the sisters' brethren, the masters' men, the owners' oxen*; which are different in sense from *the father's children, the sister's brethren, the master's men, the owner's oxen.*

The father's children means the children of one father.

The sister's brethren means the brethren of one sister.

The master's men means the men of one master.

The owner's oxen means the oxen of one owner.

But—

The fathers' children means the children of different fathers.

The sisters' brethren means the brethren of different sisters.

The masters' men means the men of different masters.

The owners' oxen means the oxen of different owners.

§ 124. *Rule for Spelling.*—When the singular number ends in *o*, preceded by a consonant, the plural is (*in writing*) formed not in *s*, but in *es*.

Sing.

Plur.

hero

heroes

cargo

cargoes

embargo

embargoes.

§ 125. *Rule for Spelling.*—When the singular number ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, the plural is

(in *writing*) formed by changing *y* into *i* and adding *-es*, as *quantity*, *quantities*.

§ 126. *Caution*.—As *ch* is not always pronounced like *tsh*, but has sometimes the sound of *k*, it is not *always* followed in the possessive case and plural number by the syllable *-es*. The following words form their plurals by the simple addition of the sound of *-s* :—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
patriarch	patriarchs
heresiarch	heresiarchs
monarch	monarchs,

not patriarches, heresiarches, monarches.

§ 127. The following plurals were formed at a period in the history of our language when its rules were less simple than at present, and when certain plurals ended in *-en* :—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
ox	oxen
cow	kine
child	children
brother	brethren.

§ 128. The following plurals were formed at a period in the history of our language when its rules were less simple than at present, and when certain plurals were formed by changing the vowel of the singular—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
foot	feet
goose	geese
mouse	mice

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
tooth	teeth
man	men

§ 129. The following plurals are formed as if the singular, instead of ending in the sound of *f*, ended in the sound of *v*; and, at some earlier period of the history of the English language, this was probably the case.

<i>Sing.</i>				<i>Plur.</i>
wife	<i>not</i>	wifes ¹	<i>but</i>	wives ²
loaf	-	loafs	-	loaves
knife	-	knives	-	knives
half	-	halfs	-	halves
life	-	lives	-	lives
leaf	-	leafs	-	leaves
calf	-	calfs	-	calves

Caution. — Plurals like *oxen* and *feet* are not *irregular*. They were effected by processes that have ceased to operate; but which, during those stages of our language, in which they *did* operate, were perfectly regular.

Caution. — Words like *wives*, &c. are not irregular plurals. As it is nearly certain that they were formed from such words as *wive*, *loave*, &c., they were formed regularly. Hence, what irregularity there is, is on the part of the singular form. This is supposed to have changed from *wive*, *loave*, &c., to *wife*, *loaf*, &c.

¹ As if written *wifce*, &c.

² As if written *wīvz*, &c.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 130. An adjective is a word capable of forming, by itself, the predicate of a proposition, but not capable of forming, by itself, the subject. We can say *fire is hot*, but not *hot is fire*.¹

§ 131. Adjectives, in English, are inflected in respect to degree only.

§ 132. Adjectives have three degrees. Words like *dark*, are in the *positive* degree; words like *darker*, in the *comparative*; and words like *darkest*, in the *superlative*.

§ 133. The positive degree is the simple adjective, as *dark*, *cold*, *rich*, *dry*, *low*.

§ 134. The comparative degree is formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *-er*; as *dark*, *dark-er*; *cold*, *cold-er*; *rich*, *rich-er*; *dry*, *dry-er*; *low*, *low-er*.

§ 135. The superlative degree is formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *-est*; as *dark*, *dark-est*; *cold*, *cold-est*; *rich*, *rich-est*; *dry*, *dry-est*; *low*, *low-est*.

§ 136. The superlative may also be formed from the comparative by changing the *r* of the comparative

¹ Apparently, expressions like *great is Diana of the Ephesians*, form an exception to this rule. In reality, however, it is no such thing. *Great* although it comes first is no *subject*. It is merely the predicate transposed.

² The reasons for this complex and apparently unnecessary process will be seen in p. 70.

into *s*, and adding *t*; as *dark-er, dark-es, dark-es-t*; *cold-er, cold-es, cold-es-t*; *rich-er, rich-es, rich-es-t*; *dry-er, dry-es, dry-es-t*; *low-er, low-es, low-es-t*.

§ 137. *Positive form wanting*.—The words *better* and *best* have no positive form; since there is no such word as *bet* or *be*, meaning *good*. The same is the case with the words *worse* and *worst*.

§ 138. The word *good* is found in the positive degree only; there being no such words as *gooder* and *goodest*. The same is the case with the word *bad*; since the words *badder* and *baddest* are not used in the present English. The same, also, is the case with the words *evil, ill, little, and much*.

§ 139. *Two forms of the Comparative*.—The word *old* has two comparative forms:—

1. *Older*—as, *I am older than you*.
2. *Elder*—as, *I am the elder brother*.

It has also two superlatives, *oldest* and *eldest*.

Note.—The comparative form *elder* may be used as a substantive; since we may say, *the elders of the people*.

In Anglo-Saxon, several other words changed their vowels in the comparative degree.

A. S. Positive.	A. S. Comparative.	English.
Lang	Leng-re	<i>Long</i>
Strang	Streng-re	<i>Strong</i>
Geong	Gyng-re	<i>Young</i>
Sceort	Scyrt-re	<i>Short</i>
Heah	Hy-rre	<i>High</i>
Eald	Yld-re	<i>Old</i> .

§ 140. The words *inmost*, *outmost*, *upmost*, *midmost*, *foremost*, *hindmost*, *utmost*, are doubly superlative.

§ 141. The words *nethermost*, *uppermost*, *uttermost*, *undermost*, *outermost*, and *innermost*, are trebly superlative.

These last two statements require explanation. The common statement concerning words like *utmost* is, that they are compound words, formed by the addition of the word *most*; this, however, is more than doubtful; inasmuch as the Anglo-Saxon language presents us with the following forms:—

Anglo-Saxon.	English.
innema (inn-ema)	inmost
ûtema (ût-ema)	outmost
siðema (sið-ema)	latest
lætema (læt-ema)	latest
niðema (nið-ema)	nethermost
forma (for-ma)	foremost
æftema (aft-ema)	aftermost
ufema (uf-ema)	utmost
hindema (hind-ema)	hindmost
midema (mid-ema)	midmost

Besides these, there are in the other allied languages words like *fruma*=*first*, *aftuma*=*last*, *miduma*=*middle*.

Now the words in question show at once, that, as far as they are concerned, the *m* that appears in the last syllable of each has nothing to do with the word *most*.

From the words in question there was formed, in Anglo-Saxon, a regular superlative form in the usual manner; viz., by the addition of *-st*; as *æfte-m-est*, *fyr-m-est*, *læte-m-est*, *sið-m-est*, *yfe-m-est*, *uto-m-est*, *inne-m-est*.

Hence, in the present English, the different parts of the syllable *most* (in words like *upmost*) come from different quarters. The *m* is the *m* in the Anglo-Saxon words *innema*, &c.; whilst the *-st* is the common sign of the superlative. Hence, in separating such words as *midmost* into its component parts, we should write—

mid-m-ost	<i>not</i>	mid-most
ut-m-ost	—	ut-most
up-m-ost	—	up-most
fore-m-ost	—	fore-most
in-m-ost	—	in-most
hind-m-ost	—	hind-most
out-m-ost	—	out-most.

In certain words the syllable *m-ost* is added to a word already ending in *er*; that is, to a word already marked with the sign of the comparative degree.

neth-er-m-ost	hind-er-m-ost
utt-er-m-ost	out-er-m-ost
upp-er-m-ost	inn-er-m-ost.

Having accounted for the *m* in the words just mentioned, we can account for the *m* in the word *former*. *Former* (*for-m-er*) is a comparative from the Anglo-Saxon superlative *forma* (*for-m-a*).

DEFECT AND COMPLEMENT.

Caution.—Comparatives like *better* are not irregular. Neither is the inflection of words like *good* irregular. They are *defective*. Words like *good* are deficient in their Comparative and Superlative; words like *better* and *best* in their Positive forms.

The *defective* character, however, of this class of words is not all. It must be remarked that the forms which one word wants, are just made good by those which another possesses. Hence there is not only *defectiveness*, but what may be called *complement* also. The form *good* fills up what was wanting to the forms *better* and *best*, and (as such) may be called their *complement*. And *vice versâ*.

Remark upon § 136. To understand the reason why this complex and apparently unnecessary process has been noticed, we must remember what has been said concerning the Mæso-Gothic language, and the extent to which it preserves the *older* forms of the Gothic inflexions.

Now the *Mæso-Gothic Comparative* was not formed in *r*; but in *s*—*Ald-iza*, *bat-iza*, *sut-iza*, were the original forms of what became in old High German *alt-iro*, *bets-iro*, *suats-iro*, and in English, *old-er*, *bett-er*, *sweet-er*.

This is one fact. Another is, that *whilst many languages have a Comparative without a Superlative degree, few or none have a Superlative without a Comparative*. Hence, in the case of a Superlative in *-st*,

two views may be taken. According to the one it is the Positive with the addition of *-st*; according to the other, it is the Comparative with the addition only of *t*. Now Grimm, and others, lay down as a rule, that the Superlative is formed, not *directly* from the *Positive*, but *indirectly* through the *Comparative*.

With the exception of *worse* and *less*, all the English Comparatives end in *r*: yet no Superlative ends in *rt*, the form being, not *wise*, *wiser*, *wisert*, but *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*. This fact, without invalidating the notion just laid down, gives additional importance to the Comparative forms in *s*; since it is from these, before they have changed to *r*, that we must suppose the Superlatives to have been derived. This theory being admitted, we can, by approximation, determine the comparative antiquity of the Superlative degree. It was introduced into the languages allied to the English *after* the establishment of the Comparative, and *before* the change of *-s* into *-r*. I give no opinion as to the truth of this theory.

PRONOUNS.

§ 142. A Pronoun is a variable name capable of forming, by itself, *either* the Subject or the Predicate of a Proposition.—*This is it, it is this.*

§ 143. Pronouns, in English, are inflected in respect to *Number*, in respect to *Case*, and in respect to *Gender*. In the additional inflection of Gender English Pronouns differ from English Substantives.

§ 144. The Cases of Pronouns are *Three*—the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*. In the possession of an additional and particular form expressive of the *Objective Case*, English Pronouns differ from English Substantives.

DECLENSION.

Pronouns of the First Person Singular.

1.	2.
Nom. <i>I</i>	Nom. —
Poss. —	Poss. <i>my</i>
Obj. —	Obj. <i>me.</i>

3.

Pronoun of the First Person Plural.

Nom. *we*
 Poss. *our*
 Obj. *us.*

1.

Pronoun of the Second Person Singular.

Nom. *thou*
 Poss. *thy*
 Obj. *thee.*

2.

Pronoun of the Second Person Plural.

Nom. *ye* or *you*
 Poss. *your*
 Obj. *you* or *ye.*

*Pronouns of the Third Person Singular, originally
Demonstrative.*

1.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	<i>he</i>	—	<i>it</i> ¹
Poss.	<i>his</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>its</i> ²
Obj.	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>it.</i>

2.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	—	<i>she</i> ³	—
Poss.	—	—	—
Obj.	—	—	—

3.

*Pronoun of the Third Person Plural, originally
Demonstrative.*

For all Genders alike.

Nom.	<i>they</i>	Poss.	<i>their</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>
------	-------------	-------	--------------	------	--------------

4.

*Demonstrative Pronoun, signifying nearness or
proximity.*

Sing.	<i>this</i>		Plur.	<i>these.</i>
-------	-------------	--	-------	---------------

Demonstrative Pronouns, signifying distance.

1.

Sing.	<i>that</i>		Plur.	<i>those.</i>
-------	-------------	--	-------	---------------

¹ Originally *hit*; *t* being the sign of the neuter gender.

² Originally *his*.

³ The masculine form *se* existed in Anglo-Saxon, but is now extinct.

Relative Pronoun.

1.

<i>Sing.</i>			<i>Plur.</i>	
Masc. and Fem.	Neut.		Masc. and Fem.	Neut.
Nom. <i>who</i>	<i>what</i>		Nom. <i>who</i>	—
Poss. <i>whose</i>	—		Poss. <i>whose</i>	—
Obj. <i>whom</i>	<i>what</i>		Obj. <i>whom</i>	—

The Reflective Pronoun.

Sing. <i>self</i>		Plur. <i>selves</i> .
-------------------	--	-----------------------

Indeterminate Pronoun.

Sing. <i>one</i>		Plur. <i>ones</i> .
------------------	--	---------------------

One is unwilling to put a friend to trouble.—My wife and little ones are well.

Note.—In no part of speech are there more remarkable instances of *defectiveness* and *complement* than in the Pronouns. This can be seen by reference to the forms *I* and *me*, the former having no oblique,¹ the latter no Nominative Case. So also with *he* and *she*; the latter is found only in the Nominative Case, of the Feminine Gender, of the Singular Number. So also with *thou* and *ye*.

Note.—Although the words *we*, *our*, and *us* show a greater difference than could be brought about by mere inflection they are not in the condition of words like *I* and *me*; that is, they are *not* different words. They are different forms of the same word. This we discover from certain inflections in the allied languages.

¹ All cases other than the Nominative are called *Oblique*.

a. The Scandinavian language enables us to connect *our* with *we*. In Danish, Swedish, and Norse, the Nominative Plural is *vi*, the Possessive *vor*. Now *vi*=*we*, and *vor*=*our*.

b. The connection between *us* and *our* is got at through the Anglo-Saxon. There, we have two forms *ure* and *usse*.

Note.—*He* and *she*, although at present they are, to all intents and purposes, personal pronouns, are not in the same class with *I*, *me*, *we*, *thou*, and *ye*,—in other words, the *true* personal pronouns are those of the two first persons only.

a. Originally, *he* and *she* were demonstrative pronouns, and afterwards articles. Hence, their present power as pronouns of the third person is secondary to their power as demonstrative.

b. They differ from the true personal pronouns of the first and second person in being of three genders; *I*, *thou*, *me*, *we*, and *ye* being the same for all genders.

Caution.—*His* and *her*, although often called possessive pronouns, are not so in reality. They are possessive cases. This is made clearer by observing that they are the equivalents, not to *suus* and *sua*, but to *ejus*. In syntax this distinction is important. We say *her father*, *his mother* = *pater ejus*, *mater ejus*. This we could not do if *his* and *her* were adjectives like *suus* and *sua*; since *sua pater* and *suus mater* are impossible combinations in Latin.

Note.—*Mine* and *thine* are adjective rather than

cases. Hence, they are equivalent to *meus, mea, meum*, rather than to *mei* and *tui*.

Note.—*Ours, yours, hers, theirs* are adjectives rather than cases. Hence, they are equivalent to *noster, nostra, nostrum*; *vester, &c.*, rather than to *nostrum, vestrum, ejus, illorum* (or *eorum*), *illarum* (or *earum*). This, at least, is what they are in syntax, and in respect to their construction in sentences. In form and origin they are *cases*. Nay more, they are doubly cases, or rather cases formed upon cases; since there can be little doubt but that the final *s* is the *s* in *father's*, and, as such, the *s* of a possessive case. On the other hand, the *r* to which it is attached is the sign of a possessive case also. The analysis, therefore, of the words is *ou-r-s, you-r-s, he-r-s, and thei-r-s*.

Note.—*It, that, and what.*—In all these words the *-t* is the sign of the neuter gender; and, consequently, no part of the original root, but, a superadded inflexion. Although, in the English language, this neuter in *-t* is found in three pronouns only, the form is an important one. In the Mæso-Gothic it pervades the whole inflection of adjectives; so that their neuters end in *-ta*, just as truly as the Latin neuters end in *-um*, or the Greek in *-ov*.

	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
	Blind- <i>s</i> ,	blind- <i>a</i> ,	blind- <i>ata</i> ;
just like	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
	Cæc- <i>us</i> ,	cæc- <i>a</i> ,	cæc- <i>um</i> .

In Norse, too, at the present moment, all neuters end in *-t*, *skön* = *pulch-er*, *skönt* = *pulchr-um*. In the Modern High German this *-t* becomes *-s*, M. *blind-er*, N. *blind-es*.

Hence what is preserved throughout the adjectives in German and Norse, is preserved, in English, in a section of the pronouns only.

Note.—*Its* is an exceptionable form. It is just such a form, in English, as *bonum-i* instead of *bon-i* would be in Latin; *i. e.* the sign of the possessive case is *added* to the sign of the neuter gender, instead of being put in place of it. To understand this we must remember that the form *i-t-s* is a recent form. It is rarely found in the writers of Queen Elizabeth's reign—never, according to Mr. Guest, in the Bible, and only occasionally in the Dramatic authors. To understand, too, more thoroughly the anomalous nature of the word *i-t-s*, we may compare it with the genitive *whose*. Had *whose* been formed on the same principle with *it*, we should have, in our language, the word *wha-t-s* as a possessive case.

Note.—*His*, until the reign of Elizabeth, was neuter as well as masculine. *If the salt have lost his flavour, wherewith shall it be seasoned.* It was only when the inflectional character of the *t* was lost, and after the initial *h* had been dropped, that the word *it* became mistaken for a simple root, from which a case might be formed.

Note.—*Whose* is a true possessive form, like *hi-s*, or *father's*. Its nature, however, is disguised by the

spelling. The better orthography would have been *who's*.

Note.—*Whom* and *him* have two powers; that of the Latin accusative which is the commoner, and that of the Latin dative which is the rarer. Which of these was the original power of the inflexion *m*? The latter. We know this from the Anglo-Saxon, where there were *two* forms, one accusative, and one dative. Of these it was the dative that ended in *m*; not the accusative. The accusative termination was *ne*.

<i>Nom.</i>	he	<i>Nom.</i>	hwa
<i>Poss.</i>	hi-s	<i>Poss.</i>	hwæ-s
<i>Dat.</i>	heo-m	<i>Dat.</i>	hwæ-m
<i>Acc.</i>	hi-ne	<i>Acc.</i>	hwæ-ne

Note.—*Which*, is most incorrectly called the neuter of *who*. Instead of being a neuter inflection, it is a compound word. The adjective *leiks* = *like* is preserved in the Mæso-Gothic words *galeiks* and *missa-leiks*. In O. H. G. the form is *lih*, in A. S. *lic*. Hence we have M. G. *hvêleiks*; O. H. G. *huêlih*; A. S. *huilic* and *hvilc*; Old Frisian, *Hwelik*; Dan. *hvilik-en*; German, *welch*; Scotch, *whilk*; English, *which*. The same is the case with

1. *Such*.—M. G. *svaleiks*; O. H. G. *sôlih*; Old Saxon, *sulic*; A. S. *svilc*; Germ. *solch*; English, *such*.

2. *Thilk*.—An Old English word found in the provincial dialects, as *thick*, *thuck*, *theck*. It is found in the following forms:—M. G. *pêleiks*; Norse, *pvilikr*.

3. *Ilk*.—Found in the Scotch, and always preceded

by the Demonstrative Pronoun ; *that ilk*, meaning *the same*. In A. S. this word is *ylca*, preceded also by the Article, *se ylca*, *seó ylce*, *pæt ylce*. This is no simple word, but a compound one, of which some such word as *ei* is the first, and *lic* the second element.

Note.—The word *one*, as an indeterminate pronoun, has no connection with the numeral *one*, signifying *unity*. The indeterminate *one* is the French *on* (as in *on dit*), which was originally *homme*, from the Latin *homo* = *a man*.

VERBS SUBSTANTIVE.

§ 145. A word that can form the copula of a proposition is called a verb substantive.

The verb substantives are *am*, *art*, *is*, *are* ; *was*, *wast*, *were*, *wert* ; *be*.

VERBS PROPER.

§ 146. A word that can, by itself, form both the copula and predicate of a proposition, is called a *Verb Proper*, or simply a *Verb*.

§ 147. Verbs are changed by conjugation in four ways :—

1. In respect to their *Number*.
2. - - *Person*.
3. - - *Mood*.
4. - - *Tense*.

Mood and tense are peculiar to verbs, and characteristic of them. No noun has either mood or tense.

§ 148. The only true and positive plural in the present English is the word *were*, as contrasted with *was* and *wast*, *e. g.* *we were*, *ye were*, *they were*. In all other cases the distinction is merely *negative*, *i. e.* certain signs characteristic of the singular are *omitted* :—

<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
We call	I call.
Ye call	Thou call- <i>est</i> .
They call	He call- <i>eth</i> (or call- <i>s</i>).

§ 149. The second person singular is formed from the uninflected verb by adding the syllable *-est*; as *speak*, *speak-est*.

§ 150. The following second persons were formed at a period in the history of our language when its rules were less simple than at present, and when certain second persons singular ended in *-t* only :—

<i>Ar-t</i> ,	not	<i>ar-est</i>
<i>wer-t</i> ,	-	<i>wer-est</i>
<i>shal-t</i> ,	-	<i>shall-est</i>
<i>wil-t</i>	-	<i>will-est</i> .

§ 151. The third person singular is formed from the uninflected verb by adding the syllable *-s*, as *speak*, *speak-s*.

§ 152. In solemn discourse we add, instead of the sound of *-s*, the sound of the syllable *-eth*, as *speak*, *speak-eth*.

§ 153. The word *am* is a first person singular, which was formed at a period in the history of our

language when its rules were less simple than at present, and when certain first persons ended in *-m*.

§ 154. The verb substantive is the only verb wherein we find a *positive* form expressive of mood.

INDICATIVE.	CONJUNCTIVE.
I <i>was</i>	If I <i>were</i>
Thou <i>wast</i>	If thou <i>wert</i>
He <i>was</i>	If I <i>were</i> .

Caution.—The word *be*, in expressions like *if I be* (which are more correct than expressions like *if I am*), is no true conjunctive form; since it is no true inflexion from the roots of *am*, *art*, *are*, but a separate and independent verb.

Caution.—Words like *speak*, in expressions like *if he speak* (which are more correct than expressions like *if he speaks*), are no true conjunctive forms. The distinction between them and those of the indicative is merely negative; i. e. certain signs characteristic of the indicative are omitted.

§ 155. The preterite tense is formed from the uninflected verb by adding the sound of *-d*, *-t*, or *-ed*, according to the rules of euphony.

§ 156. The following preterites were formed during a period in the history of our language, when its rules were less simple than at present, and when certain words ending in *k*, *g*, and *ch* underwent certain peculiar changes:—

teach	taught	bring	brought
catch	caught	think	thought
beseech	besought	buy ¹	bought.
seek	sought	owe ¹	ought

§ 157. The following preterites were formed during a period in the history of our language when its rules were less simple than at present, and when a certain number of preterites were formed by changing the vowel of the present.

Present.	Preterite.	Present.	Preterite.
fall	fell	bear	bore
befall	befell	forbear	forbore
hold	held	tear	tore
draw	drew	wear	wore
slay	slew	break	broke
fly	flew	shake	shook
blow	blew	take	took
crow	crew	forsake	forsook
know	knew	get	got
grow	grew	beget	begot
throw	threw	forget	forgot
beat	beat	eat	ate
weave	wove	tread	trod
freeze	froze	come	came
steal	stole	overcome	overcame
speak	spoke	become	became
swear	swore	bid	bade

¹ Originally *byegan*, and *agan*.

Present.	Preterite.	Present.	Preterite.
forbid	forbade ¹	spring	sprung
give	gave	sting	stung
forgive	forgave	ring	rang ¹
wake	woke	wring	wrung
strike	struck	fling	flung
arise	arose	cling	clung
abide	abode	hang	hung
smite	smote	string	strung
ride	rode	sling	slung
stride	strode	sink	sank ¹
drive	drove	drink	drank ¹
thrive	throve	shrink	shrank
strive	strove	dig	dug
write	wrote	stick	stuck
climb	clomb	run	ran ¹
bite	bit	burst	burst
swim	swam	bind	bound
begin	began ¹	find	found
spin	spun	grind	ground
win	won	wind	wound
sing	sang ¹	choose	chose

§ 158. A participle takes the same place in a proposition as an adjective, as *the man is coming*. Here *coming* is a participle, forming the predicate of a proposition, but not being able to form the subject of one, a property wherein it agrees with the adjective: see § 111.

¹ Also *bid, forbid, begun, sung, rung, sunk, drunk, run*.

§ 159. A participle is always formed by inflection from some verb ; as *coming* from *come*, *moving* from *move*, *flown* from *fly*. In this respect it differs from an adjective, and is therefore considered as a separate part of speech.

§ 160. The participles in English are two :—

The present participle active, as *flying*, *moving*.

The preterite participle passive, as *flown*, *moved*.

§ 161. The present participle active is formed by adding to the uninflected verb the syllable *-ing*, as *speak*, *speak-ing*.

§ 162. The past participle passive is formed from the uninflected verb by adding the sounds of *-d*, *-t*, or *-ed*, according to the fundamental rules of euphony.

§ 163. As the past participle is formed from the same part of the verb as the preterite tense, and by the addition of the same sounds, the two formations are generally identical :—preterite *I moved* ; participle *I have moved*, *I am moved*.

§ 164. The most important verbs, wherein the preterite participle differs in form from the preterite tense are the following :—

Present.	Preterite.	Participle.
fall	fell	fallen
befall	befell	befallen
hold	held	holden
draw	drew	drawn
shew	shewed	shewn
slay	slew	slain

Present.	Preterite.	Participle.
fly	flew	flown
blow	blew	blown
crow	crew	crown
know	knew	known
grow	grew	grown
throw	threw	thrown
beat	beat	beaten
weave	wove	woven
freeze	froze	frozen
steal	stole	stolen
speak	spoke	spoken
swear	swore	sworn
bear	bore	borne
bear	bore	born
forbear	forbore	forborne
tear	tore	torn
shear	shore	shorn
wear	wore	worn
break	broke	broken
shake	shook	shaken
take	took	taken
forsake	forsook	forsaken
get	got	gotten
forget	forgot	forgotten
eat	ate	eaten
tread	trod	trodden
come	came	come
overcome	overcame	overcome
become	became	become

Present.	Preterite.	Participle.
bid	bade ¹	bidden
forbid	forbade ²	forbidden
give	gave	given
forgive	forgave	forgiven
arise	arose	arisen
smite	smote	smitten
ride	rode	ridden
stride	strode	stridden
drive	drove	driven
thrive	throve	thriven
strive	strove	striven
write	wrote	written
bite	bit	bitten

§ 165. In words (like *swim*) where there are two preterites, one of which is formed in *a* (as *swam*), and the other in *u* (as *swum*), the participle always agrees with the form in *u*, as

Present.	1st Preterite.	2nd Preterite.	Participle.
swim	swam	swum	swum
begin	began	begun	begun
sing	sang	sung	sung
sink	sank	sunk	sunk ³
drink	drank	drunk	drunk ³
run	ran	run	run

Caution.—Those verbs which form their preterite by changing the vowel, are by no means *irregular* ; although, they are often, incorrectly, called so. On

¹ Also *bid*.

² Also *forbid*.

³ Or *sunken, drunken*.

the contrary, they are a class of great importance. At present it is sufficient to say that they are called *strong*, because they form their preterite independently of any additional syllable. On a similar principle, the verbs, like *move* (*moved*), are called *weak*; because, in order to form their preterite, they require the addition of a fresh syllable.

ADVERBS.

§ 166. A few adverbs are capable of being inflected after the manner of adjectives, *i. e.* in respect to the degrees of comparison—*John comes seldom, James seldom, and William seldomest of all.*

Generally, however, instead of inflecting an adverb, one of the two following methods is adopted.

1. That of taking the comparative or superlative form of an adjective, and using it adverbially; as *the sun shines brighter to-day than it did yesterday, and probably it will shine brightest to-morrow.*

2. That of prefixing the word *more*; as *the sun shines more brightly than it did yesterday, and will probably shine most brightly to-morrow.*

THE UNINFLECTED PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 167. Prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are wholly uninflected.

PART IV.

ENGLISH AFFINITIES TO OTHER LANGUAGES.

It has been seen that the English has a specific relation to the languages of the Gothic stock. It has also affinities beyond the Gothic stock.

Although in either the classical languages, Latin or Greek, the words that coincide with similar terms in the Gothic languages are, comparatively speaking, few, they are by no means wanting. On the contrary a great number of the names of natural objects, the degrees of relationship, the parts of the body—in other words—those terms which may reasonably be supposed to constitute the earliest elements of languages are common to the Gothic and Classical stocks of languages. It may be added that they are found in other languages besides ; but the only ones noticed at present, will be the classical ones.

Amongst the names of natural objects common to the Gothic and Classical stocks are

English.	Latin.	Greek.
fire	——	πῦρ.
water	——	ῥῑῥῑ.
star	st-ella	ἀ-στὴρ. ¹

¹ Ster-ul-a.

English.	Latin.	Greek.
tree	—	δρῦ-ς.
deer	fer-a	θῆρ.
horn	corn-u	—

and several others.

Amongst the names expressive of relationship are

English.	Latin.	Greek.
father	pater	πατήρ.
mother	mater	μητήρ.

Amongst the names of the parts of the human body.

English.	Latin.	Greek.
eye	oc-ulus	—
nose	nas-us	—
lip	lab-ium	—
mouth	ment-um	—
tooth	dent-	οδοντ-
foot	ped-	ποδ-
hide	cut-is	—

and several others.

Instances of this kind are called instances *glossanal* affinity, because the likeness consists in the likeness between individual words (Γλώσσαι).

What follow are instances of what is called *gram-matical* affinity, because the likeness consists in the likeness between the inflections.

§ 168. The *-s* in the English genitive singular (*father's*) is the *-s* in *patr-is*, *lapid-is*, &c., which is the *-s* in *σώματ-ος*, *τίταν-ος*, &c.

Caution.—The notion that *father's* is an abbrevi-

ation of *father his*, is erroneous. It is based upon expressions like *Christ his sake*, and others like it, which occur in the Bible translation, the Liturgy, and other portions of our older literature. This view will not account for expressions like *the Queen-s grace*, *the children-s bread*, since they cannot possibly be explained by being derived from the *Queen her grace*, or the *children their bread*.

Again—the view in question will not account for the *-s* in the word *hi-s* itself.

§ 169. The *-s* in the English nominative plural (*fathers*) is the *s* in *lapid-es*, τῑτᾱν-ες.

§ 170. The *-er* in the English Comparative degree (*wiser*) is the *-er* in words like *inf-er-us*, *sup-er-us*.

§ 171. The *-st* in the English Superlative (*wis-est*) is the *ιστ* in words like *οἰκτ-ιστ-ος*.

§ 172. The *m* in *for-m-er* is the *m* in *pri-m-us*.

§ 173. The *-t* in *tha-t* and *wha-t* is the *d* in *i-d*, and the *τ* in *δ-τ-ι*.

§ 174. The *th* in words like *four-th* and *fif-th* is the *t* in *quar-t-us*, and *quin-t-us*, τέταρ-τος, and πέμπ-τ-ος.

§ 175. The *-m* in *a-m*, is the *m* in *sum*, and εἰ-μ-ι.

§ 176. The *-s* in *call-es-t* is the *-s* in *am-as*, and ῥύπτ-εις. The *t* is of late origin. It was unknown in the Mæso-Gothic, and in the Old-Saxon, where the termination was simply *-s*.

§ 177. The *th* in *speak-eth* is the *t* in *am-at*.

§ 178. The *-ing* in *speaking*, is the *nd* of the Latin Gerunds, *ama-nd-i*, *ama-nd-o*, *ama-nd-um*. The

older form of the English participle was *-nd*. In A. S. *luf-i-and* was the participle. This termination has since been softened down into *ing*.

§ 179. The first *d* in *did* is believed on good grounds to be as true a reduplication as the *τ* in *ρέ-τυφα*, and the *m* in *mo-mordi*.

This will not appear strange when we learn that in that early stage of the Gothic languages represented by the Mæso-Gothic, there was an undoubted reduplication.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.	English.
1. Salta	sáisalt	saltan-s	leap.
2. Háita	háiháit	háitan-s	call.
3. Hláupa	hláiláup	hláupan-s	run.
4. Slêpa	sáizlêp	slêpan-s	sleep.
5. Láia	láilô	láilan-s	laugh.
6. Grêta	gáigrôt	grêtan-s	weep.

Now the final *-s* in the Mæso-Gothic past participle is the sign of the nominative case, like the *ς* in *τυφθείς*: so that the participle ended in *-en*, as in *sunk-en*, *forgott-en*, &c.

As the participle of *do* ends in the sound of *n*; the word is considered to belong to the same declension of *sang*, *swam*, &c.; with the additional peculiarity of being the single word which has preserved the original reduplication.

If so, the sign of the tense is not the second *d*, but the *first*.

§ 180. The *-d* in the participle *moved* is probably the *-t* in *voc-at-us*, and the *θ* in *τυφ-θ-είς*.

I say *probably* because there are two doctrines concerning the preterite in *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t*.

Grimm considers that it is the *d* in *did*, the reduplicate Preterite of *do*.—In all the Gothic languages the termination of the Past Tense is either *da*, *ta*, *de*, *ði*, *d*, *t*, or *-ed*, for the Singular, and *don*, *ton*, *túmēs*, or *ðum*, for the Plural. In other words *d*, or an allied sound, appears.

In the Plural Preterite of the Mæso-Gothic this *d* appears *twice*; so that we have the termination *dédum*; as *nas-idédum*, *nas-idédup*, *nasidédun*, from *nas-ja*; *sok-idédum*, *sök-idédup*, *sök-idédun*, from *sök-ja*; *salb-ôdédum*, *salb-ôdédup*, *sâlb-ôdédun*, from *salbô*. The same takes place with the Dual form *salb-ôdêduts*, and with the Subjunctive forms, *salb-ôdêdjáu*, *salb-ôdêduts*, *salbôdêdi*, *salb-ôdêdeits*, *salb-ôdêdeima*, *salb-ôdêdeip*, *salb-ôdêdeina*.

On the other hand, the Slavonic¹ languages present us with a preterite undoubtedly growing out of the *participle*; so much so that it has Genders: in other words, there is one form for speaking a past action when done by a male, and another for speaking of a past action when done by a female: just as if, instead of saying *ille amavit* the Latins said *ille amatus*, whilst instead of saying *illa amavit*, they said *illa amata*.

¹ The language akin to the Russian, Polish, Servian, and Bohemian.

TRANSITION OF LETTERS.

The last observation that will be made upon the affinity between the Gothic and Classical languages, relates to what is called the *Transition of Letters*. This is anything but arbitrary; in other words certain sounds in Latin or Greek, are generally changed into certain other sounds in the Gothic tongues with remarkable regularity. The most important of these are the transitions of

1. *An initial Π or P.*

This, in Greek and Latin, becomes *f* in English.

Greek.	Latin.	English.
ποδ-	ped-	foot
πατήρ	pater	father
πλέος	pl-enus	full.

2. *An initial Φ or F.*

This, in Greek and Latin, becomes *b* in English.

Greek.	Latin.	English.
φέρ-ω	fer-o	bear
—	frater	brother
ὄ-φρυς	—	brow
—	fruc- ¹	brook
—	freg-i ²	break.

¹ The root of *fru-or*. The English word *brook*, as in expressions like *I could not brook such treatment*, means originally *to make the most of or use*. *Brauchen* = *use* in the present German.

² This is a simpler form than the present *frango*.

3. *The initial K or C.*

This, in Greek or Latin, becomes *h* in English.

Greek.	Latin.	English.
κεφ-αλή	caput	head ¹
καρδ-ία	cord-	heart
—	corn-u	horn
—	cut-is	hide
κύων	can-	hound

4. *The initial Γ or G.*

This, in Greek or Latin, becomes *k* in English.

Greek.	Latin.	English.
γνώ-ω	gno-sco	know
γόνυ	genu	knee
γέν-ος	gen-us	kin

5. *The initial Θ.*

This in Greek becomes *f* in Latin, and *d* in English.

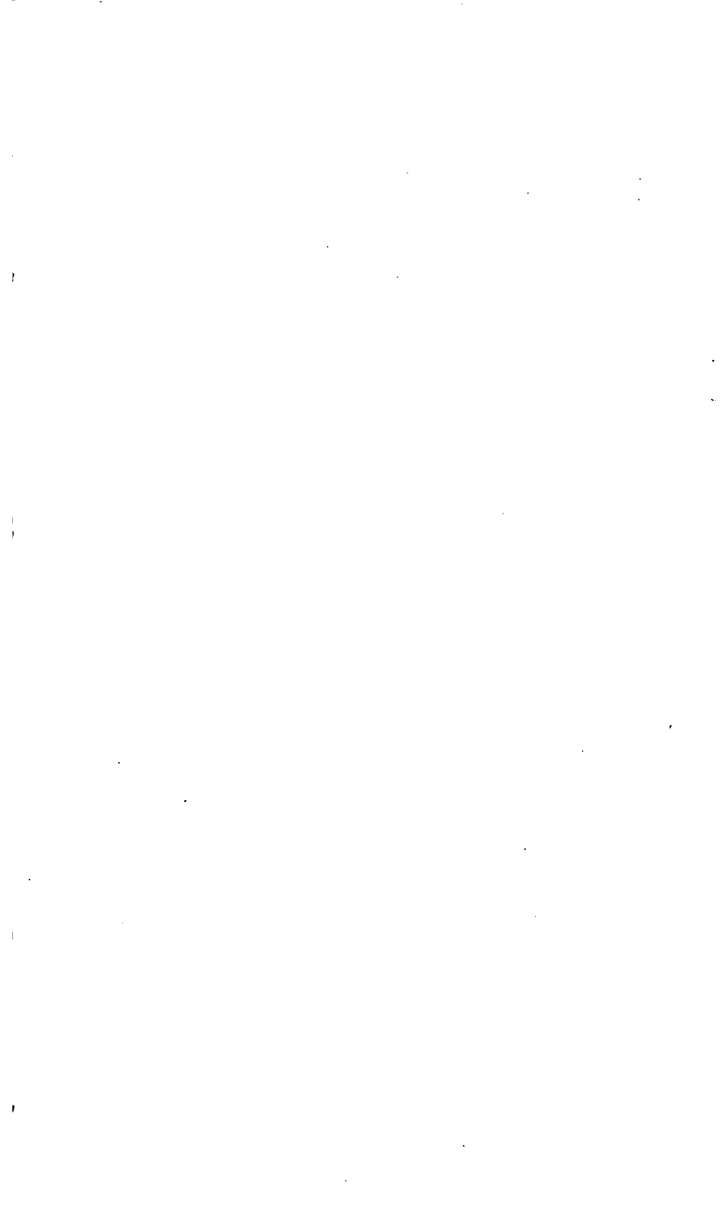
Greek.	Latin.	English.
θηρ	fer-a	deer
θύρ-α	for-a	door
θυγάτηρ	—	daughter.

This list could be increased, but sufficient instances have been adduced to show that the *transition of letters is not arbitrary but regular.*

¹ In German haup-t.







**THIS BOOK IS DUE ON THE LAST DATE
STAMPED BELOW**

**AN INITIAL FINE OF 25 CENTS
WILL BE ASSESSED FOR FAILURE TO RETURN
THIS BOOK ON THE DATE DUE. THE PENALTY
WILL INCREASE TO 50 CENTS ON THE FOURTH
DAY AND TO \$1.00 ON THE SEVENTH DAY
OVERDUE.**

OCT 29 1932

NOV 27 1935

NOV 29 1935

MAR 4 1937

NOV 28 1937

MAY 3 1933

DEC 14 1941

EX-100

DEC 14 1941

YA 003 / 3

4745

Latham

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY

